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ABSTRACT

This study is one of a series of Office of Education publications on educational developments in other countries. It describes and analyzes in social, economic, and historical context the educational changes mandated in Spain by the Education Reform Law of 1970, one of contemporary Europe's most far-reaching plans for educational reform and renewal. The study also gives attention to some of the initial stages in the implementation of the law, based on information available through mid-1971. Included in the document are sections on: 1) The Country, People, and the Culture; 2) Educational History of Spain; 3) Educational System of the 1960's; 4) Developments and Problems on the Eve of the Reform; 5) Beginnings of the Educational Reform; 6) The Education Reform Law of 1970; 7) The Reform in Action; 8) Interpretation; and Appendices, including a glossary of educational terms, a list of selected references, the introduction to the "Libro Blanco" and extracts from the Education Reform Law of 1970. Several charts are also included. (Author/OPH)

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Foreword

This study is one of a series of Office of Education publications on educational developments in other countries. It describes and analyzes in social, economic, and historical context the educational changes mandated in Spain by the Education Reform Law of 1970, one of contemporary Europe's most far-reaching plans for educational reform and renewal. The study also gives attention to some of the initial stages in the implementation of the law, based on information available through mid-1971.

The author, Dr. William W. Brickman, is professor of educational history and comparative education at the University of Pennsylvania. A distinguished scholar and well-established authority on education in other countries, Dr. Brickman was first president of the Comparative and International Education Society in 1956–59 and again in 1967–68. He has written more than 100 books, articles, and reviews on questions affecting American and international education. Among Dr. Brickman's work is an earlier study done for the Office of Education—*Denmark's Educational System and Problems* (1967). In preparation for this study on Spanish education, he visited Spain and consulted with Spanish educational officials, students, and teachers.

The Office of Education and the author are grateful for the assistance of the Honorable Ricardo Diez Hochleitner, Spanish Under Secretary for Education and Science; Dr. Joaquín Tena Artigas and Prof. Víctor García Hoz of the University of Madrid; Dr. Albert Harkness, Jr., Horace Y. Edwards, and Millard L. Johnson of the U.S. Embassy, Madrid; and Emmett M. Partin of the University of Pennsylvania.

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ROBERT LEESTMA
Associate Commissioner for International Education

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1. Introduction

THE COUNTRY

The Estado Español (Spanish State), founded by Generalísimo Francisco Franco on October 1, 1936, during the Civil War, has a total area of 194,883 square miles and a population of 33,470,000 (1970 estimate). Located in southwestern Europe across the Mediterranean Sea from Africa, the Iberian peninsula, which Spain shares with Portugal, is a geographically diverse area in terrain and climate. Much of the country is rugged, with five mountain ranges, including the Pyrenees in the north and one peak, Mulhacén, near Granada, rising to 11,420 feet.

The major economic activities are agriculture, fishing, mining, and the manufacturing of cotton and woolen goods. Of 12,324,000 employed persons in 1967, constituting 37.8 percent of the total population, 4,180,000 were engaged in agriculture, forestry, and fishing and 3,020,000 in manufacturing. The largest cities are Madrid (3,030,204), Barcelona (1,851,756), Seville (511,011), and Valencia (497,146).[1]

THE PEOPLE

The history of Spain from ancient times is a record of many population changes resulting from invasions and commerce. To the original inhabitants of Spain new peoples have been added at various periods. The chief ethnic strains were the Romans, the Phoenicians, the Celts, the Visigoths, and the Moors. The last-named brought the Islamic religion and culture, and the Jews added another religious-cultural element to the predominant Roman Catholic civilization.

Within the Spain of today, there are diverse cultural groups, some with separate languages or forms of Spanish. These include the Basques of the north, speaking a language and dialects unrelated to any European tongue; the Catalans of Catalonia, whose speech and literature are identified as Romance, but distinct from Spanish; and the Gallegos of Galicia in the northwest, whose language is closer to Portuguese than to Castilian or national Spanish. Because of linguistic, cultural, and sometimes political differences, the Basques and Catalans have periodically demanded autonomous status—all the more since the government has banned their languages in schools and publications.

[1] Population figures are from the 1970 census.

With regard to religion, Spain is homogeneous with most of its people professing Roman Catholicism, the established religion. There are some 26,000 Protestants and 1,000 Jews—the former with 200 churches and chapels, and the latter with single synagogues in Madrid and Barcelona.

THE CULTURE

The Spanish achievements in culture have been impressive at various times in history. In ancient times Marcus Annaeus Seneca, his son Lucius Annaeus Seneca, and his grandson Marcus Annaeus Lucan, all born in Córdoba, wrote Latin works in history, philosophy, and poetry that became part of the classical literature of Rome. The educator Quintilian and the epigrammatist Martial likewise made a deep impress on Roman literature and thought. Orosius, the historian, in the fifth century, and Archbishop Isidore of Seville, the encyclopedist and historian of the sixth to seventh century, contributed works that were widely read for some time throughout Europe. In the Middle Ages, ibn-Rushd or Averroës, the Moslem philosopher, and Moses Maimonides, the Jewish philosopher-physician, both born during the same decade in Córdoba, affected profoundly the thought of Europe. With the establishment of the united kingdom under Ferdinand and Isabella late in the 15th century, Spain controlled a mighty international empire which was explored by Genoa-born Columbus, Coronado, Balboa, Cortés, and Pizarro.

The great cultural contribution of Spain came during the *Siglo de oro*—the Golden Age of the late 16th and 17th centuries. Such artists as the Greek-born El Greco, Murillo, and Velásquez painted great masterpieces of art admired all over the world. Lope de Vega and Calderón wrote notable dramas, while Cervantes immortalized Don Quixote, "the Man of La Mancha." Tirso de Molina introduced the theme of Don Juan into European literature and thereby influenced the drama and music of several countries. In religion, this period produced St. Ignatius de Loyola, who founded the Society of Jesus, and the mystical thinkers St. John of the Cross and St. Theresa of Ávila. Francisco de Victoria and Francisco Suarez, both of them theologians, were pioneers in international law. The 18th and 19th centuries marked a low point in terms of Spanish cultural influence, except for the work of the remarkable painter and etcher Francisco de Goya, the historical and other novels of Benito Pérez Galdós, and the music of Isaac Albéniz.

The 20th century, on the other hand, was rich in cultural stars in various fields. Pío Baroja's novels on Basque life and Vicente Blasco Ibáñez' *Blood and Sand* and *The Four Horsemen of the Apocalypse* reached many readers. Nobel Prizes for literature were won in 1904 and 1922 by José Echegaray and Jacinto Benavente, the dramatists, and in 1956 by the lyric poet, Juan Ramón Jiménez, author of *Platero and I*. Other prominent leaders were Miguel de Unamuno, writer of philosophical works, and José Ortega y Gasset, influential author of

The Revolt of the Masses and *The Mission of the University*. Salvador de Madariaga contributed significant writings on international relations and history.

Spanish achievement in art and music won many admirers in various parts of the world. Pablo Picasso, who won his fame as a founder of the cubist school of painting, was educated as an artist in Barcelona and Madrid. Another important Spanish painter who worked in France was Joan Miró, the cubist and surrealist. A third expatriate to France is Salvador Dali, also a surrealist, who, like Picasso, enjoys a wide international reputation. In the realm of modern music, Spain has two well-known composers: Manuel de Falla, composer of *La vida breve,* an opera, and *The Three-Cornered Hat,* a ballet; and Enrique Granados of *Goyescas* fame. As performers, few musicians command more appreciative audiences than Pablo Casals, the cellist, and Andrés Segovia, the guitarist.

2. Educational History of Spain

EDUCATION BEFORE 1492

The earliest influences upon education in Spain came from Greece and Rome. In turn, Spain exported (during the first century A.D.) Seneca and Quintilian, whose educational ideas helped shape theory and practice in ancient Rome and in Western Europe for some time. The *Institutes of Oratory*, in particular, has remained an important educational classic from which thinkers continue to draw inspiration.

Another Spanish contribution to European education was the *Etymologies* by Isidore, Bishop of Seville (*ca.* 560–636), which divided the seven liberal arts into a trivium (grammar, rhetoric, and logic) and a quadrivium (arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music), with the former to be studied before the latter. This work was a standard textbook in higher education during the Middle Ages. Within Spain itself, there were monastic and cathedral schools which educated boys for the priesthood.

The Moorish conquest of Spain (711–19) led to the infusion of Islamic culture and thought, as well as the transmission of Greek learning. During the reign of Caliph Abd al-Rahman III (912–61), Córdoba had free schools, libraries, and especially a university which began to attract "students, Christian and Moslem, not only from Spain but from other parts of Europe, Africa and Asia," and thus "rose to a place of pre-eminence among the educational institutions of the world." [1] Other higher institutions under Moslem auspices were established in Seville, Málaga, and Granada. Christian universities were founded in Palencia (1208–09), Salamanca (1220), Valladolid (1250), Barcelona (1450), Valencia (1500), and elsewhere. The tradition of disseminating knowledge through higher education and translation institutes, begun in the 11th century under Kings Alfonso VI and VII, was made firm by Alfonso el Sabio (1252–84) of Castile; Archbishop Rodrigo Ximénes de Rada (1170?–1247) in Toledo; and Cardinal Francisco Ximénes de Cisneros (1437–1517), Inquisitor General and founder of the Collegium Trilingue (1499) at Alcalá de Henares, which produced the Complutensian Polyglot Bible in 1520. The outstanding Spanish educator was Ramón Lull (1235?–1315), the Catalan writer of educational treatises and promoter of the teaching of Arabic and Hebrew.

[1] Philip K. Hitti. *History of the Arabs* (5th ed.). New York: Macmillan, 1951. p. 530. See also Julián Ribera y Tarrago. *La Enseñanza entre los Musulmánes Españoles*. Zaragoza: Ariño, 1893.

EDUCATION OF THE MIDDLE CLASS

After Spain became a united Christian country in 1492, provisions were made for educating the middle class. Elementary education during the 16th century was in private hands, and some thought—if little action—was given to compulsory school attendance. In the 17th century, the Madrid teachers' association received the right to examine teacher candidates.[2] Teacher education was furthered by the opening of the first normal school, *Colegio Académico de Primeras Letras* (1780) in Madrid. The significant educators from the 16th through the end of the 18th century included Juan Luís Vives (1492–1540), theorist, methodologist, and proponent of the education of the poor and of women; Pedro de Ponce (1520?–84) and Juan Pablo Bonet (1560–1630?), pioneers in the education of the deaf-mute; Juan de la Huarte (1526–90), French-born but Spanish-educated author of *Examen de ingenios para las ciencias* (1575), an early work on differential psychology and vocational and educational guidance; Juan de Herrera (1530–96), the architect who completed the *Escorial* and directed the Madrid academy for mathematics and architecture; San José Calasanzio (1556–1648), founder of the Piarist order of teachers, the counterpart on the elementary level to the Jesuit order established by St. Ignatius de Loyola (1491–1556), who brought Catholic education, especially to the poor, all over the world; Baltasar Gracián (1601–58), rector of the Jesuit College of Terragona and author of widely read educational writings; and Pedro Rodríguez de Campomanes (1723–1803), who promoted teacher education, increased public schools, and modernized the university curriculums.

PUBLIC ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Systematic development of public education was encouraged in the 19th century by successful resistance to the Napoleonic invasion, the growth of secularist thought, and rising nationalism, but the going was far from easy. Despite the provision in the Constitution of 1812 for state-controlled universal primary education and for higher schools, and despite an 1825 law for an elementary school system, political unrest and ideological opposition was not overcome until the enactment of the Moyano law of 1857.[3] This act called for compulsory school attendance for children aged 6 to 12, free tuition for the poor, local and provincial boards of education, and provincial normal schools. Following the 1868 revolution, a law made elementary education free to all. The secondary school curriculum was reorganized and practical courses introduced in 1845 under a law passed on the initiative of the new director of public instruction, Antonio Gil de Zárate (1796–1861),

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[2] José Mallard. "Spanien: [Part] I. Geschichtliches," *Lexikon der Pädagogik*. III: 596. Bern: Francke, 1952. p. 596.

[3] Text in *Colección de leyes referentes a Instrucción Pública*. Madrid: Manuel Tello, 1890.

author of the significant historical work, *De la instrucción pública en España.*[4] Also affected by the reform movement in 1845 were the universities, which had been closed in 1830 by King Ferdinand VII and reopened 3 years later.

Because of the slowness in establishing a national school system (in large measure caused by the secular-clerical and the liberal-conservative controversy), efforts were frequently made under private auspices to introduce change into education. The *Instituto Pestalozziano,* founded in 1807 by Francisco Amoros (1770–1848), the physical educator, lasted only 1 year, while the statesmen Manuel de Godoy and Juan de Anduzar aroused interest in the ideas of Pestalozzi by disseminating publications, in particular Spanish translations of the works of that famous Swiss educator.[5] The *Sociedad de Amigos del país de Cádiz* made an attempt in the 1830's to introduce the monitorial system of mass instruction. At the invitation of an organization for promoting education, Pablo Montesino (1781–1849), an educational official, opened the first Spanish kindergartens in Madrid in 1838. From about the midcentury on, the impact of the industrial and the scientific revolutions resulted in the establishment of commercial, agricultural, and technical schools.

The most systematic campaign to popularize and modernize Spanish education was carried on by the *Institución Libre de Enseñanza* (founded in 1876 in Madrid by Francisco Giner de los Rios—1839–1915) largely under the inspiration of the educational reformer Julián Sanz del Rio (1814–69) who introduced *Krausismo,* the idealistic philosophy of the German Karl Christian Krause, into Spain. While this institution was dedicated to higher education, it also pointed the way to reform in elementary and secondary schools. Among the changes introduced by Giner and his colleagues, particularly Manuel B. Cossío (1857–1935), were coeducation, academic freedom, school excursions, religious neutrality, and character and work education. Understandably, there was opposition by the Catholic Church and other conservative interests, but the *Institución* had a lasting effect upon education in Spain well into the 20th century, as evidenced by institutions such as the *Museo Pedagógico National, Junta para Ampliación de Estudios, Instituto Escuela,* and the *Residencia de Estudiantes.*[6]

The campaigns for educational reform and expansion came none too soon, and it may be inferred that they did some good. In 1860, 75 percent of the population was illiterate, but, according to the census of 1900, *analfabetismo* was down to 63 percent, with only 30 percent of

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[4] Published in three volumes in Madrid, 1855.

[5] Robert L. Packard and Anna Tolman Smith. "Spain, Education," *A Cyclopedia of Education* (Paul Monroe, ed.). New York: Macmillan, 1913. V:381. On Pestalozzianism in Spain, see Yvonne Turin. *L'éducation et l'école en Espagne de 1874 à 1902: Liberalisme et tradition.* Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1959. pp. 205-07.

[6] Lorenzo Luzuriaga. *Diccionario de Pedagogía* (2d ed.). Buenos Aires: Losada, 1960. p. 207. For detailed studies of the work and influence of Giner and the *Institución,* see Lorenzo Luzuriaga. *La Institución Libre de Enseñanza y la Educación en España.* Buenos Aires: Universidad de Buenos Aires, 1957. See also Vicente Cacho Viu. *La Institución Libre de Enseñanza. I. Orígines y etapa universitaria (1860–1881).* Madrid: Rialp, 1962.

the inhabitants of Madrid and 48 percent of Barcelona unable to read. For a country with a rich cultural and educational heritage, such percentages were still excessive. Small wonder, then, that a Ministry of Public Education came into being in 1900 and, in 1909, an *Escuela Superior de Magisterio* was opened to upgrade teacher training by preparing instructors for normal schools and school inspectors.

Another reform of a nongovernmental nature ran into serious difficulty. In 1901, under the direction of Francisco Ferrer (1859–1909), a man of revolutionary bent, the *Escuela Moderna* movement was launched in Barcelona, with a program of teaching in the spirit of science, secularism, and anarchism. The spread of schools with such programs throughout Spain and the publication of textbooks aroused considerable opposition. The movement was suppressed after the government executed Ferrer on charges of rioting in Barcelona. To liberals, this was "judicial murder," [7] while to conservative Catholics, Ferrer was justifiably punished "for the wholesale arson, rape, and murder he had instigated." [8] Ferrer was dead, but the ideas of anarchism, socialism, and revolution lived on during the dictatorship of General Miguel Primo de Rivera, the short life of the Republic, and the Civil War of the 1930's. Spain did not have an easy time in recovering from the war with the United States (1898) and from the industrial tensions resulting from the expansion of munitions manufacturing in World War I. When the ideological issues were carried over into education, there were conflicts and clashes.

The short republican rule (of less than a decade) was marked by the opening of many schools, improvement of secondary education, and the upgrading of teacher training, but these advances were not made without some administrative confusion. Under the Constitution of December 9, 1931, elementary education was free, compulsory, and secular. Churches were allowed to teach religion in their own buildings, subject to state supervision, and members of religious orders, as in France, were forbidden to teach. However, owing to the shortage of funds and of qualified lay teachers, the prohibition of religious teachers could not be enforced.[9]

The victory of Generalísimo Francisco Franco over the Republic in 1939, after years of a bloody Civil War, gave an opportunity to the Catholic Church once more to exert an influence on education. This relationship was officially underscored in the Primary Education Law of July 17, 1945. The preamble to this law made it clear that it was prepared under "the first and most fundamental [inspiration], the

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[7] Joseph McCabe. "Introduction," in Francisco Ferrer, *The Origin and Ideals of the Modern School*. New York: Putnam, 1913. p. iv.

[8] Hilaire Belloc. *"The International": I. The Ferrer Case. II. The Motive Force*. Educational Briefs No. 30, April-July 1910. Philadelphia: Superintendent of Paris Schools, 1910. Reprinted from *Dublin Review*, March and April 1910. See also S.J.W. Kane. *An Essay toward a History of Education*. Chicago: Loyola University Press, 1935. p. 496.

[9] D. Rufino Blanco y Sánchez. "Spain," *Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University: 1936* (I. L. Kandeln, ed.). New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936. pp. 437–76.

religious."[10] It went on to emphasize that, in line with the glorious, national tradition, the Spanish school "must be above all, Catholic," and pledged that the school system will follow the principles of canon law and those enunciated by Pope Pius XI "in his immortal encyclical 'Divini illius Magistri.'"[11] Accordingly, article 3 recognizes the right of the Catholic Church to open elementary and normal schools as well as to inspect all public and private schools with regard to matters of faith.[12] This lengthy law dealt in detail with practically all aspects of elementary education and of the preparation of elementary teachers.

Among the other acts passed by the *Cortes* were the University (Organization) Law of July 29, 1943, and the 1953 Law of the Foundations of Middle Education. The educational system established by Franco and his Falangists was unified and totalitarian; but, because of changes in the Church, political and economic life, and society, modifications had to be made according to some viewpoints in Spain. The ferment of the late 1960's resulted in the *Libro Blanco* report and the enactment of the Education Reform Law of 1970.

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[10] Spain, Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Ley de Educación Primaria de 17 de julio de 1945*. Madrid: The Ministry, 1952. pp. 37–38.

[11] Ibid., p. 38.

[12] Ibid., p. 43.

3. The Education System of the 1960's

Change in education was more perceptible in the 1960's than in the two previous decades of Franco's Spain. In 1964 the Government lengthened compulsory school attendance by 2 years, so that children from 6 to 14 years of age were required to be in school. In the same year, the Technical Education Act increased opportunities in secondary and higher education, as did the opening of additional state and private secondary schools. For these reasons, the aims, administration, structure, and content of Spanish education during the 1960's are of particular interest.

AIMS

Education in Spain, as in most modern countries, has been seeking to develop informed citizens to serve the Government. Furthermore, a nation which identifies itself closely with the Catholic Church is concerned with inculcating national political loyalty as well as belief in the teachings of the Church. According to the revised Primary Education Law of 1966, the aims of primary education, "the first step in the national formation or development of man's specific capabilities," were (1) to provide all citizens with a "general obligatory culture," (2) "to form the child's will, consciousness, and character toward the fulfillment of his duty and eternal destiny," (3) "to inculcate in the spirit of the pupil love for, and the idea of service to, the Fatherland [*Patria*], in agreement with the inspiring principles of the Party [Movimiento]," (4) "to endow childhood with a capability for later studies and activities of a cultural nature," and (5) "to contribute, within its own sphere, to guidance and vocational training for a life of agricultural, industrial, and commercial work." [1] The law recognized the coordinate rights of the family, the Church, and the state in education. The Church retained its right to maintain its own schools, as well as to inspect the teaching of "faith and customs" in all public and private schools.[2]

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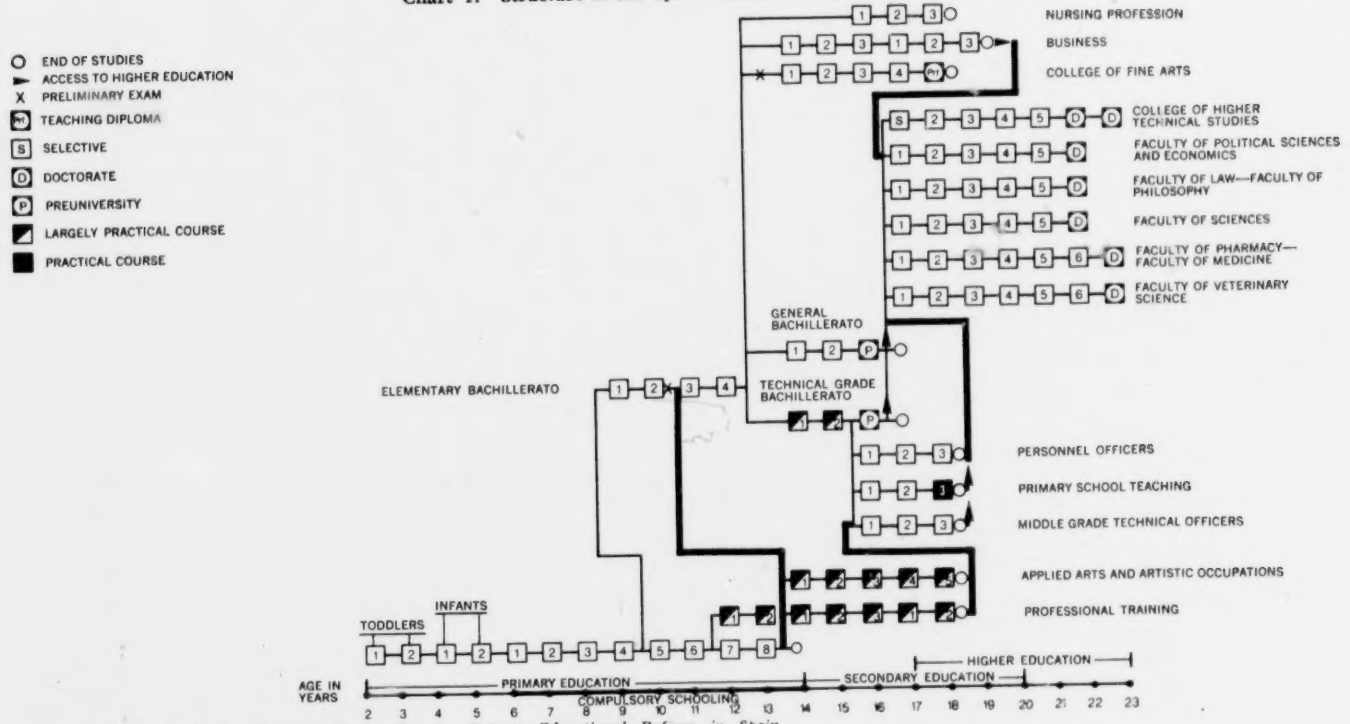
[1] Spain, Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Ley de Educación Primaria de 17 de julio de 1945*. Madrid: The Ministry, 1952. p. 4.
[2] Ibid., p. 5.

Chart 1. Structure of the Spanish education system: 1968



Source: Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Report: Educational Reform in Spain.* Madrid: The Ministry, 1971.

ADMINISTRATION

The educational system of Spain [3] in the 1960's was centrally administered, controlled, and largely financed by the Ministry of Education and Science (*Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia*). However, some specialized educational functions were carried out by the ministries of agriculture, commerce, justice, and labor and by trade unions. National financial responsibility was shared, to some extent, with provincial and local governmental authorities. Private schools, which were supervised by the Ministry of Education and Science, received varying subventions.

The Ministry of Education and Science was divided into directorates, among them elementary, secondary and professional education, higher education and research, fine arts, and archives and libraries. As in the historical French system, Spanish education has been administered in 12 university districts (*distritos universitarios*), under a rector who exercised authority over all educational institutions in his area. Elementary and secondary schools have been supervised by national, district, and provincial inspectors. The universities alone have been inspected on the district level only. The National Council of Education (*Consejo Nacional de Educación*), the supreme advisory body, evaluated the work of the public educational agencies and coordinated the activities of the advisory councils on all levels. The political sector was represented in all educational advisory bodies.

Enrollments for 1966–67 and 1968–69 were as follows: [4]

	1966–67	*1968–69*
Preschool and elementary	3,971,803	4,390,000
General secondary	1,180,960	1,210,017
Higher	141,149	181,908
Other	112,823	395,224
Total	5,406,735	6,177,149

STRUCTURE [5]

The Spanish educational system consisted of a nursery school (*escuela maternal*), for ages 2 to 4; a kindergarten (*escuela de párvulos*), for children between 4 and 6; a free, compulsory elementary school (*escuela*

[3] Outlines of the Spanish school system are found in *Education in Europe: School Systems, a Guide* (rev. ed.). Strasbourg: Council for Cultural Co-operation of the Council of Europe, 1970. pp. 205-17; Ellen M. Doherty and George A. Male. *Education in Spain: Educational Data.* U.S. Office of Education. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966; *and* J. Richard Toven. *Spain: A Study of the Educational System of Spain.* Washington: American Council on Education, 1967.

[4] Figures for 1966–67: Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *España: El movimiento educativo durante el año escolar 1967–68.* Madrid: The Ministry, 1968. pp. 13–14. Figures for 1968–69: Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia, Secretaría General Técnica, Gabinete de Análisis Estadístico y Socio-Económico. *Datos y cifras de la enseñanza en España: 1970.* Madrid: IMNASA, 1971. p. 29.

[5] The structure of the Spanish education system of 1968 is shown in chart 1.

primaria) for pupils aged 6 to 14 and a 7-year secondary school (*Instituto Nacional de Enseñanza Media*). A pupil could gain admission to a general secondary school, where fees were charged, after 4 years in the elementary school with a certificate (*certificado de estudios primarios*) obtained by examination. The secondary school was composed of three cycles: A 4-year course on the junior high school level leading to the diploma of *bachillerato general elemental;* a 2-year course conferring the *bachillerato general superior;* and a 1-year *curso preuniversitario,* which enabled the student to gain admission to any faculty in a university or other higher technical institute. Apart from these academic schools, there were numerous vocational, trade, commercial, industrial, technical, and artistic schools of various levels.

As in several other countries, teachers for elementary schools were trained in a 3-year *escuela de magisterio,* a school of secondary grade. Teachers for secondary schools were prepared in universities and had to obtain the degree of *licenciatura* after a 5-year period of study. The course in medicine, pharmacy, and veterinary medicine required 6 years. The doctor's degree (*título de doctorado*) was awarded after 6 years of study, a thesis, and examinations. The possession of a doctorate plus a minimum of 2 years of teaching experience and the passing of a difficult examination were required before anyone could obtain an appointment as a university professor (*catedrático*).

CONTENT

Elementary Education

In line with the law of 1945, the curriculum of elementary education comprised the basic skill subjects of interpretative reading, writing, spelling, composition, and arithmetic; and the "complementary" subjects of natural science, music, singing, drawing, handicraft, workshop, and needlework. Of particular importance were the "formative [subjects] . . . those which make up the basis of moral and intellectual education . . . first, religious training; second, the formation of a patriotic spirit, which also includes geography and history, especially Spanish; third, intellectual training, which includes the national language, and mathematics; and, fourth, physical education, which includes gym, sports, and supervised games." [6] The number of hours per week varied from 30 hours in grades 1 and 2 to 32½ in grades 6 to 8.

This aggregation of courses has been subjected recently to official criticism. One source of dissatisfaction was the separation of instruction in reading from that in language, since ". . . these two are part of the latter and cannot be separated if a complete knowledge is desired." [7]

[6] Spain, Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Ley de Educación Primaria de 17 julio de 1945.* Op. cit., p. 18.

[7] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *La Educación en España: Bases para una política educativa.* Madrid: The Ministry, 1969. This report is known as the *Libro Blanco.* Quotations will be cited from the official translation: *Education in Spain: Bases for an Education Policy.* Madrid: The Ministry [1969]. p. 48. (Mimeographed.)

Another important comment called attention to the formative, rather than the complementary, character of science. According to the *Libro Blanco,* a 1969 Ministry of Education and Science report: "Science should be an important part of education on all levels as a means to understand beings and phenomena, developing the child's curiosity and stimulating, exercising, and disciplining the child's tendency towards empirical thought." [8] It also pointed out that a quarter-century of criticism of bookish instruction had gone unheeded by most teachers, who found excuses for not introducing newer methods of teaching, such as audiovisual procedures, in the elementary schools. Despite some improvement in methods in recent years, ". . . the vice of memorization still exists. The justification and objective of this is to control the students' acquired knowledge through exams based on what the pupil remembers, not on what he knows, and, even less, what he knows how to do." [9] The official recognition of the need for methodological modernization, no doubt, will lead to an acceleration of change in content and method in the Spanish elementary schools.

Secondary Education

Spanish secondary education no longer concentrated on the traditional fields of the humanities and the sciences, a program which led to the diploma of *bachillerato general superior* and then to the university. Each of the three types of diplomas—*letras, ciencias,* and *técnico* (previously *laboral*)—required a 7-year course sequence plus an advanced examination. A 4-year junior-level course and an examination qualified the student for the diploma of *bachillerato general elemental,* which was necessary for positions requiring basic skills. Other forms of secondary education were the three-level program of professional training, the two-level commercial training program, and the intermediate technical and other schools, such as those in home economics and languages. The highest type was the 1-year *curso preuniversitario,* which was supplemented by final tests and the special maturity examination (*Pruebas de Madurez*), in place of the university entrance examination, as the condition for admission to higher education.

The *bachillerato elemental* course consisted of Spanish language and literature, Latin, a modern foreign language, geography, history, civics, physics and chemistry, natural science, home economics, mathematics, drawing, physical education, and religious instruction. These same subjects, plus philosophy, comprised the curriculum for the *bachillerato superior.* The number of hours ranged from 31 to 33 per week. In the *curso preuniversitario,* the literature students spent 25 hours per week studying Spanish, a modern language, Latin, geography, philosophy, history, civics, and religion. The science students, also in a 25-hour weekly program, substituted natural science, mathematics, and physics

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[8] Ibid., p. 49.
[9] Ibid., pp. 51–52. Italics in original.

and chemistry for Latin. All courses of study, general or vocational, required instruction in religion and in civics (*espiritu nacional*).[10]

An interesting provision for those lacking either the resources to pay the tuition fees or access to schools because of distance was for such disadvantaged individuals to do independent work (in which case they were termed *estudiantes libres*), or to attend technical institutes with low enrollment or nonofficial schools. If these students passed the official examinations, they were entitled to the *bachillerato*.[11]

As in elementary education, there has been criticism from official sources regarding the programs of the secondary schools. One serious, perennial problem has been that of the high rate of dropouts, 68 percent, from the beginning to the end of the *bachillerato* program.[12] Other causes for complaint have been the lack of individualization of curriculum, insufficient attention to character education, and inadequate personality training.

Secondary vocational education not only provided opportunities for learning employable skills, but also for acquiring the *bachillerato técnico superior* and admission to certain higher education programs, such as those in technology and social work. The three parts of technical and vocational education were initiation on the basis of an entrance test, apprenticeship training, and a final examination resulting in the certificate of skilled worker (*maestria*) in a specialized field. This program combined 2 years of academic work (grades 5–6) and 3 years of technical study, at the end of which the pupil could obtain, after an examination, the *bachillerato técnico elemental*. Two more years of study qualified the student for the *bachillerato técnico superior* in various fields, such as aeronautics, agriculture, industrial engineering, forestry, technical architecture, topography, and telecommunications. In addition, there were programs of study in commerce, elementary teacher training, public health, physical training, and the fine arts. Upon completion of a 5-year program built upon 8 years of elementary education, the graduate received certification as a specialist (e.g., *título de perito mercantil*) or as a teacher (*título de profesor de educación física*). Some dissatisfaction has been expressed in governmental circles with the lack of appropriate regulation and coordination of private vocational and technical training.[13]

As already noted, the training of elementary teachers was on the secondary education level. The recent system, based on the Primary Education Law of December 21, 1965, conducted elementary teacher education in normal schools (*escuelas normales*) which functioned as centers of professional training (*centros de formación profesional*). To gain admission, a student must have acquired the *bachillerato superior*. The present program represented a change which emphasized practice

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[10] See J. Richard Toven. *Spain: A Study of the Educational System of Spain*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1967. pp. 16–17, 21–31, and 33–36.

[11] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Education in Spain: Bases for an Education Policy*. Op. cit., pp. 69–71. Also, Doherty and Male. Op. cit., pp. 13–14.

[12] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Education in Spain: Bases for an Education Policy*. Op. cit., p. 77.

[13] Ibid., p. 95.

teaching. The previous 3-year course with 1 hour of practice per week per year [14] was replaced recently by a 2-year course and a qualifying examination followed by a year of paid practical teaching. The first year's curriculum comprised pedagogy and the history of education; general psychology and personality development; methods of teaching mathematics, natural science, Spanish language and literature, geography and history, and religion; the English language and methods of teaching English; and the methodology of the formation of patriotism (*espiritu nacional*).[15] In the second year, the student took courses in didactics and school organization; philosophy and sociology of education; methods of teaching mathematics, Spanish language and literature, geography and history, physics and chemistry, and religion; English language and methods of teaching English; methods of teaching patriotism; practice teaching; and complementary subjects—drawing, music, handicraft, and physical training.[16]

Practice teaching was conducted under the direction and evaluation of the normal schools and the inspectors of elementary education. At the end of the year of practical teaching, the student obtained the title of teacher (*maestro*) and was eligible for a regular appointment to a school, with preference given to those with the best grades.[17] From the standpoint of the government, there was an improvement in the preparation of the elementary school teacher. On the other hand, as the reader is well aware, there was an imbalance in the curriculum in the direction of courses in methodology. Actually, 15 of the 21 hours of courses per week were spent in the methods courses. This point was underscored by the Ministry of Education and Science, which also stressed the fact that the broader field of educational science or pedagogy had been neglected. "Learning, which must be understood by one who is involved in training and teaching, can only become intelligible when its philosophical, biological, sociological, and psychological foundations are carefully studied." [18] The current training program ". . . does not encourage the necessary spirit of innovation and investigation for modernizing educational methods, and for using technological means that would allow both greater efficiency and lower expenses if a larger number of students can be properly taken care of at the same time." [19] The new reform would see some basic changes in the curriculum of elementary teacher education.

Higher Education

Inservice training was carried on primarily in centers of educational collaboration (*centros de colaboración pedagógica*), which operated

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[14] Toven. Op. cit., pp. 102-03.

[15] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Education in Spain: Bases for an Education Policy*. Op. cit., pp. 54–55.

[16] Ibid., p. 55.

[17] Ibid., p. 54.

[18] Ibid., p. 58.

[19] Ibid., pp. 58–59. Italics in original.

under the inspectorate, and in normal schools and universities. Moreover, the Center of Documentation and Professional Guidance of Elementary Education (*Centro de Documentación y Orientación Didáctica de Enseñanza Primaria*), founded in 1958, organized inservice refresher and retraining courses, seminars, and conferences, and issued various books, pamphlets, and magazines, including the monthly *Vida Escolar*. Experienced teachers could also obtain a paid leave of absence to enroll in the university to study philosophy, letters, science, technology, or pedagogy, and thus to advance their knowledge and professional qualifications.

A prospective teacher in the Spanish secondary school was required to obtain the degree of *licenciado* after a 5-year period of study in the university. Prospective teachers of mathematics, chemistry, physics, or natural science had to enroll in the faculty of science, while those intending to teach Spanish, foreign languages, philosophy, and history had to study in the faculty of philosophy and letters. Teachers of art and of vocational and technical subjects were required to have diplomas or degrees, depending on the field, from a higher technical school or university. There was no requirement that secondary school teachers take courses in professional education.[20] Instructors of educational subjects were appointed on the basis of a *licenciado* from the section of pedagogy in the faculty of philosophy and letters in a university, and on actual teaching experience, while teachers of the academic subjects in the normal schools were required to possess a *licenciado* in philosophy and letters or in science, as well as appropriate courses in the section of pedagogy.

The absence of professional study for secondary school teachers attracted the critical attention of the Ministry of Education and Science. According to the *Libro Blanco*, the training of teachers in secondary schools was ". . . excessively centered on the level of scientific and specialized knowledge, disregarding other fundamental aspects: ability to communicate; knowledge of the students, the groups and the most suitable teaching techniques."[21] One procedure to correct this deficiency was the introduction of the certificate of educational aptitude (*certificado de aptitud pedagógica*). However, for academic and economic reasons, the government did not insist on this as a requirement for secondary school teachers. In its evaluation of the situation of teaching in secondary schools, the Ministry stressed the negative aspect:

> . . . the idea of teaching as the transmission of knowledge, not to stimulate and guide the students' personal activity; the trend to lecture courses, usually with the perspective of the specialist in a certain subject, with the consequent lack of integration in the educational institution, forgetting that each course is one of the interdependent elements of a system which is trying to achieve the integral education of the students.[22]

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[20] Doherty and Male. Op. cit., p. 25.

[21] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Education in Spain: Bases for an Education Policy*. Op. cit., p. 83. Italics in original.

[22] Ibid., pp. 84–85.

Under the new reform, the course for prospective secondary school teachers would include some courses in pedagogy as it had not in the past.

Higher education in Spain has been given in the universities, the higher technical schools (*escuelas técnicas superiores*), the higher schools of the fine arts (*escuelas superiores de bellas artes*), the higher conservatories of music and speech (*conservatorios superiores de música y declamación*), the higher school of dramatic art (*Real Escuela Superior de Arte Dramática*), and others. In each of the 12 university districts a state university was operated under the direction of the Ministry of Education and Science. In addition, there were private institutions of higher learning, such as the Pontifical University of Comillas, Santander; the Catholic University of Navarra, Pamplona; the Pontifical University of Salamanca; and the University of Duesto, Bilbao, a Jesuit institution. The degrees granted by these universities, however, had to be validated by a public university to obtain official recognition.[23]

The number of faculties in the universities varied from three at Murcia to seven at Madrid. A full university has the following faculties: Law; medicine; pharmacy; philosophy and letters; political science, economics, and commerce; veterinary medicine; and science. The faculty of philosophy and letters at the University of Madrid consists of departments of classical, modern, English, French, German, and Italian philology, as well as history, American history, and pedagogy. During 1967–68, the University of Madrid organized a department of the history of art and a subdepartment of psychology.[24]

The general details of university administration have usually been similar to those in other European higher institutions. What was noteworthy was the system of governance consisting of the rector, vice-rector, the deans of the several faculties, representative members of the professoriate, and a representative of the student union (*Sindicato Español Universitario*)—a unit of the Falange Party to which all students must belong.[25] Each institution has student residence halls (*colegios majores*) which provide various cultural opportunities to the students.

The successful completion of a 5-year course (a 6-year course in the faculties of medicine and pharmacy) entitled the student to the degree of *licenciado*. During the first 2 years in the faculty of philosophy and letters, the students of all departments pursued a common core of studies (*curso estudios communes*): Latin language and literature, Greek or Arabic language and literature, Spanish language, world history, general history of art, and fundamentals of philosophy in the first year; Latin language and literature, Greek or Arabic language and literature, Spanish literature in relation to world literature, history of philosophic systems, general history of Spain, and general geography

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[23] Doherty and Male. Op. cit., p. 21.

[24] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *España: El movimiento educativo durante el año escolar, 1967–68*. Madrid: The Ministry, 1968. p. 16.

[25] Toven. Op. cit., pp. 37–38, *and* Doherty and Male. Op. cit., p. 19.

in the second year.[26] Other common requirements, irrespective of faculty, were 2 years of physical training, 2 to 3 years of *formación politica,* and 2 to 4 years of religion.

It is worthy of note that the higher education enrollment in Spain nearly quadrupled in 3½ decades. Attendance at universities and at higher technical schools rose as follows: [27]

	1932–33	*1957–58*	*1966–67*	
		Number of students		*Percent increase*
Universities	33,623	60,281	105,612	314
Higher technical schools	2,627	5,260	36,028	1,371

In 1964, the total number of higher education students per 100,000 persons in Spain and nine other countries was as follows: [28]

Great Britain	352
Portugal	353
Spain	355
West Germany	455
Italy	512
Switzerland	519
Belgium	805
Czechoslovakia	1,000*
U.S.S.R.	1,585
United States	2,840*

* Figure for 1965 instead of 1964.

Compared with seven other countries, Spain had the lowest percentage of graduates in relation to the total higher education enrollment: [29]

Spain (1966)	5.8
France (1963)	10.4
Austria (1964)	10.5
Italy (1963)	10.8
United States (1965)	12.3
Belgium (1962)	19.1
West Germany (1964)	24.8
Great Britain (1963)	38.0

Also significant is the following comparison of the percentage of higher education students in relating to the total national educational enrollment: [30]

[26] Toven. Op. cit., pp. 56–63. See also the university catalogs, e.g., *Guia de la Universidad de Madrid: Curso 1967–1968.* Madrid: Universidad de Madrid [1967]. *Universidad de Barcelona: 1968.* n.p.: n.d.

[27] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Education in Spain: Bases for an Education Policy.* Op. cit., table 27, p. 102. The figures for the other countries were taken from UNESCO compilations.

[28] Ibid., table 28, p. 102.

[29] Ibid., table 29, p. 102.

[30] Ibid., table 30, p. 102.

United Kingdom (1964)	2.1
West Germany (1965)	2.4
Spain (1966)	2.6
Italy (1965)	2.9
Belgium (1964)	3.3
France (1964)	4.2
U.S.S.R. (1964)	6.4
United States (1965)	9.4

Of particular interest is the fact that the Spanish Government felt it necessary to emphasize these data, even though they made Spanish higher education appear, in some respects, in an unfavorable light. The Ministry of Education and Science was fully aware of the shortcomings of the higher educational system in Spain and repeatedly called attention to them in the *Libro Blanco*. Thus, in connection with the exceptional enrollment growth, as attested by the statistics, the governmental authorities took pains to point out that the data included independent students who did not obtain systematic academic instruction. They also warned the nation that ". . . the very low percentage of graduates . . . is an indication of the need to increase the effectiveness of the system considerably." [31]

Several more statistical facts might be mentioned. The greatest increase in enrollment between 1957–58 and 1966–67 was 412 percent in the faculty of political and economic science, compared with 310 percent in the faculty of philosophy and letters and 211 percent in science. Most students tended to register at the Universities of Madrid (35.6 percent of the total) and Barcelona (13.6 percent). The rate of failure in 1965–66 averaged 25 percent in all faculties, except in political science and economics, where it amounted to 39.9 percent, no doubt because ". . . this Faculty has the largest proportion of students who study while they work and a higher student-teacher ratio." [32] The percentages of failure in the higher technical schools were even higher, ranging from 29.7 percent in textile industries to 51.4 percent in mountain engineering. According to the Ministry, these percentages have risen since the reform of technical education, which eliminated the entrance examination.

The only degree other than the *licenciado* granted by Spanish universities has been the *título de doctorado* which requires a minimum of an additional year of study (2 years in the faculty of medicine), a dissertation, and a final examination. The completion of the doctorate in 1 year is very uncommon.[33]

One of the outstanding problems in Spanish higher education has been the persistence of the independent students (*alumnos libros*), who constituted 25 percent of the entire student body in 1966–67. Even though this figure was down from 46 percent in 1957–58, it fluctuated during the decade: 25 percent in 1962-63 and 1963-64; 32 percent in 1964-65; and 30 percent in 1965-66. The largest proportion of independent students was in the faculty of political science and eco-

[31] Ibid., p. 103.
[32] Ibid., p. 120.
[33] Toven. Op. cit., p. 40.

nomics, owing to the fact, in the view of the Ministry, that only six universities have this faculty and that many students were also employed.[34]

The *Libro Blanco* contains many criticisms of higher education in Spain, including the following: Administration is difficult because of the process of excessive centralization, "virtually unchanged for more than a century." Most courses are theoretically oriented and are seldom concerned with laboratory experiments, case studies, and serious discussions; the university has failed in carrying out its duties of counseling and guidance. It emphasized the essential objectives of the university which should serve as the basis for any reform: ". . . scientific research, the transmission of accumulated knowledge, cultural synthesis of knowledge and integration of science and culture in the surrounding society." [35] The *Libro Blanco* did not say much about the specific steps to be taken to remedy the various shortcomings of higher education in Spain. It did mention, however, the addition by the law of June 6, 1968, of new programs and new institutions; faculties of science and of philosophy and letters, and a department of economics at the new University of Madrid; faculties of philosophy and letters and of medicine at the new University of Barcelona; a faculty of science at the University of Bilbao; and university branches at Santander, San Sebastián, and Badajoz.[36]

Adult Education

The Government has given a great deal of attention to the issue of illiteracy, historically a most significant problem. The national campaign to eradicate illiteracy, inaugurated by the decree of August 10, 1963, under the direction of the Ministry of Education and Science undertook to offer courses all over the country. The results have been rather gratifying to the Government—a reduction of illiteracy in 1968 to 5.7 percent of the population over the age of 15 and to 3 percent between the ages of 15 and 60. Notwithstanding this dramatic decrease from the higher percentages earlier in the century, the Ministry felt that it still had much to do toward solving "this complex problem." Even with the liquidation of illiteracy on a statistical basis, there remained the matter of qualitative literacy. The *Libro Blanco* expressed considerable dissatisfaction that "Spaniards read very little; and this is proved by newspaper editions and the number of books sold by inhabitant and year, compared to more developed countries." [37] The task of motivating Spaniards to read more wisely and more deeply, of course, is within the province of adult education.

There have been three approaches to adult education: Formal courses organized by secondary schools and universities; aesthetic appreciation

[34] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Education in Spain: Bases for an Education Policy*. Op. cit., p. 116.
[35] Ibid., p. 129. Original in italics.
[36] Ibid., p. 98.
[37] Ibid., p. 35.

of literature and the arts under the auspices of the houses of culture *(casas de la cultura);* and the promotion of sociocultural intercommunication and cooperation in clubs involving persons with similar interests, such as music, agriculture, and excursions. The Commission for Cultural Extension *(Comisária de Extensión Cultural),* organized in 1953, set up cultural missions and later cultural centers to make adult educational activities available all over Spain. It provided a variety of services, among them audiovisual aids (films, records, tapes), books, and classes. Increasing use has been made of radio and television facilities to further the vocational and agricultural training of adults. Since 1963-64, it has been possible to obtain a *bachillerato elemental* on the basis of following the radio course. This has proved to be most helpful to Spanish people working in Germany, Switzerland, France, Belgium, and the Netherlands.[38] Also contributing to adult education have been museums, historical and archeological sites, botanical and zoological gardens, theaters, operas and orchestras, and public libraries. That these did not provide as much as they should have was stressed in the *Libro Blanco.*[39]

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[38] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *España: El movimiento educativo durante el año escolar, 1967–1968.* Op. cit., p. 27.

[39] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Education in Spain: Bases for an Education Policy.* Op. cit., pp. 174, 176, and 178.

4. Developments and Problems on the Eve of the Reform

The preceding pages have mentioned several new developments and various problems in Spanish education on the eve of the 1970 reform. In this section, an effort will be made to consider some of these in greater depth.

FREEDOM OF THE TEACHER

One basic issue was the freedom of the teacher in school and society. In a country where one party and one church represent power in practice, and where education is centrally controlled and administered, it was unrealistic, of course, to expect a wide degree of freedom within any level of education. It came as no surprise to find in some of the writings about Spanish education that control was pervasive. For example, the expatriate educator, Lorenzo Luzuriaga of Argentina, affirmed that "freedom of conscience does not exist for teachers; all have to submit to the teaching of the Catholic Church." [1]

That there was some stirring toward freedom of conscience and belief was evident from recent changes in national policy regarding other religious faiths. Moreover, the student and the regional autonomy movements have given the Government reason to reflect upon and reconsider the relation of the people to the state. The ruling power, in presenting a blueprint for educational reform in 1969, showed an awareness of the need to modify the monolithic policy which governed the Spanish school system for about three decades. In his introduction to the *Libro Blanco*, the Minister of Education and Science, Prof. José Luis Villar Palasí, emphasized more than once that the educational reform represented ". . . a silent and peaceful revolution, but the most effective and profound in achieving a more just society and an increasingly more human life, in the widest sense of the word." [2] And yet, in its second part, the *Libro Blanco* seemed to reiterate, possibly in aggressive form, that the new educational program would be rooted in the "Christian concept of life" and in "the principles of the

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[1] Lorenzo Luzuriaga. "España," *Diccionario de pedagogía* (2d ed.). Buenos Aires: Losada, 1960. p. 14.

[2] Spain. Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Education in Spain: Bases for an Education Policy*. Madrid: The Ministry [1969]. p. vii (mimeographed).

National Movement," i.e., the Falangist ideology.[3] Accordingly, it was difficult to see how academic freedom could develop in an environment where change may prove to be more apparent than real. However, it was necessary to try to keep an open mind and observe the developments following the actual passage of the reform law, which occurred in the summer of 1970.

LITERACY

Other problems and issues, of course, are common to the educational systems of many countries in Europe and elsewhere. As already indicated, illiteracy is evidently on the way out. The rapid reduction of the percentage of the population unable to read was a significant achievement for the Spanish Government and people. Even with the final liquidation of illiteracy, expected in 1970, the problem of literacy still remained. A modern nation with a vast cultural heritage, such as possessed by Spain, could not afford to be satisfied with mere basic reading ability for its citizenry. The Ministry of Education and Science, as well as the several educational and cultural agencies, has a considerable task before it in extending the literacy of the Spaniards in quantity and in quality. Perhaps this might be an outcome of the new educational reform.

PRIVATE EDUCATION

The matter of private education has been a noteworthy development. A considerable percentage of pupils, 26.2 percent, attended church and private schools in 1962-63,[4] while in 1966-67 this figure rose to 30.5 percent.[5] On the secondary level, the ratio was reversed: In 1962-63, the state schools enrolled 18.4 percent of the entire secondary school enrollment, with the balance distributed among church institutions (35.3 percent), private schools (9.4 percent), and independent study (36.9 percent).[6] It can be argued that, from the standpoint of state control, there has been little difference between the official and the non-state schools. Certainly, there has been great similarity in spirit and content among all schools in Spain, allowing for a more pervasive religious influence in the Roman Catholic institutions. Nonetheless, the situation in the private schools was not quite the same as in the state schools. One important difference was the student-teacher ratio, which in the private schools remained 16:1 during 1962-66, while in the state schools it fluctuated—33:1 in 1962-63, 36:1 in 1963-64, 39:1 in 1964-65, and 37:1 in 1965-66.[7]

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[3] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Bases para una política educativa.* Madrid: The Ministry, 1969. p. 206. Part II, which briefly analyzes the new plan, was not translated into English.

[4] Doherty and Male. Op. cit., p. 9.

[5] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Education in Spain: Bases for an Education Policy.* Op. cit., p. 42.

[6] Doherty and Male. Op. cit., p. 13.

[7] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Education in Spain: Bases for an Education Policy.* Op. cit., table 21, p. 72.

SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHER PREPARATION

The preparation of secondary school teachers was in a state of change. As pointed out previously, these teachers traditionally had received a university education in subject matter without courses in pedagogy. It has long been the view of an outstanding Spanish educationist, Prof. Víctor García Hoz of the University of Madrid, that ". . . professional preparation in education must be made obligatory for those who wish to teach in any kind of secondary school." [8] His view must have obtained widespread approval, since the recommendations of the *Libro Blanco* embodied this thought. This document specified that the professional training of the secondary school teacher was to be under the direction of the institutes of educational sciences at the universities. The professional education sequence would consist of courses in the foundations of education, psychology of adolescence, methods of teaching a special subject or of a group of related fields, and student teaching.[9] It is possible that, from the viewpoint of the Ministry, teachers who were equipped with the knowledge and appreciation of such matters as adolescent psychology and teaching methodology might be in a position to aid in the personality development of the student and otherwise, so that the "excessively high" 68 percent dropout from the beginning to the end of the *bachillerato* might be reduced.[10] In some ways, this trend toward the professional pedagogical preparation of teachers in secondary school might be regarded as in line with the movement in many countries toward emphasizing the nature and needs of the individual learner.

STUDENT UNREST

With reference to student unrest—a persistent problem all over the world—the first part of the *Libro Blanco* (a critical analysis of Spanish education) acknowledged its importance as well as its dimension of dissent not merely toward the university, but also toward society and even the government. The second part (outlining foundations for reform), however, did not grapple with the implications of that statement. Instead, the section dealing with "student participation in university life" called upon students to cooperate, through their freely elected representatives, in "the permanent improvement of higher education." [11] It remains to be seen if the new educational reform, and

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[8] Víctor García Hoz. "The Education of Teachers in Spain," *The Education and Training of Teachers: The Year Book of Education, 1963* (George Z.F. Bereday and Josephy A. Lauwerys, eds.). New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1963. p. 289.

[9] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *La Educación en España: Bases para una política educativa*. Op. cit., p. 219.

[10] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Education in Spain: Bases for an Education Policy*. Op. cit., pp. 77–78.

[11] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *La Educación en España: Bases para una política educativa*. Op. cit., p. 226.

the state of the nation in general, will be of such a nature as to elicit such cooperation from the students of the Spanish universities and higher technical institutes.[12]

ADULT EDUCATION

Aside from the campaign in behalf of literacy, adult education in Spain has not enjoyed unmitigated success, from the standpoint of the Ministry of Education and Science. In spite of "ample activities" on the part of several Ministries, the armed services, the Church, the Falangist Party, and the labor unions, there have been failures in the adult education efforts. Specifically, the reasons for the failures were the "lack of specific means and methods for out-of-school education . . . personnel specifically trained for these tasks, which require different abilities from those necessary for other teaching professions . . . coherent policies for adult education . . . a sociocultural structure within the economic structure . . . a doctrine of out-of-school education within the frame of permanent instruction . . . [and] a clear concept of the kind of person that education should build, considering the special kind of society wanted." [13] Clearly, the reform, which also encompasses adult education, would have to launch an all-sided drive to improve the education of Spanish men and women.

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[12] On student unrest, see, for example, the Associated Press report from Madrid, "Spanish Police Stifle Protest on Campuses," *Philadelphia Inquirer*, Jan. 26, 1970. A Reuters dispatch from Madrid, dated June 1, 1970, reports that 650 Spanish university professors and other intellectuals submitted a petition to the Ministry of Education and Science regarding the immediate withdrawal of police from campuses, student representation in academic affairs, and freedom of intellectual expression. "650 Spanish Intellectuals Urge Reform of Universities," *International Herald Tribune* (Paris), June 2, 1970.

[13] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Education in Spain: Bases for an Education Policy*. Op. cit., pp. 157–58.

5. Beginnings of the Educational Reform

AWARENESS OF THE NEED FOR REFORM

To those who have been following closely the development of education in Europe since World War II, the announcement of an impending reform of the school system of Spain was neither a shock nor even a surprise. Educational reform had been in the European atmosphere, with that of Sweden commanding attention from the early 1950's. As Spain became more active in international relations, it was a matter of time before the Government would adopt a decision to modernize the educational system.

Consciousness of the need for reform and efforts toward it go back nearly a century to the time of Francisco Giner de los Rios and his *Institución Libre de Enseñanza*. Others, including José Castillejo, professor of law at the University of Madrid, labored for a comprehensive educational reform in the early decades of the 20th century.[1] The past decade has witnessed an accelerated awareness of the weaknesses of Spanish education, both by Spaniards and by outsiders, with an accompanying desire for action.

The range of foreign reaction to Spain's educational level ran from admiration to disapproval. To Paplauskas-Ramunas, a Canadian of East European educational origin, Spain remains the "magistra Europae," [2] chiefly because of its past achievements. On the other hand, Spolton, an Englishman, maintains that, in comparison with European and other countries, "Spain has a low level of educational provision," especially in secondary education.[3] Thoughtful Spaniards, however, were more likely to agree with the latter.

Contributing significantly, no doubt, to the movement toward educational reform was the growing realization that the country's economic and social development depended upon the proper preparation and utilization of manpower. This led to an agreement in December 1961 between the Spanish government and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (O.E.C.D.) to participate in the Medi-

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[1] José Castillejo. *Education and Revolution in Spain*. London: Oxford University Press, 1937. p. 5.

[2] Antoine Paplauskas-Ramunas. "Les horizons pédagogiques de l'Espagne," *Revue de l'Université d'Ottawa*. XXXII:257, July-September 1962.

[3] Lewis Spolton. *The Upper Secondary School: A Comparative Survey*. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1967. p. 279.

terranean Regional Project,[4] comprising Greece, Italy, Portugal, Turkey, and Yugoslavia—all developing countries as compared to those of Western and Central Europe. The resultant report, prepared by a team of Spanish economists and statisticians headed by Joaquín Tena Artigas and O.E.C.D. specialists, analyzed the Spanish education situation and made specific recommendations to overcome the defects which had been revealed.

In sum, this study did not regard the current quality of Spanish education as "satisfactory." [5] That the relation between education and national development was grasped and accepted immediately is clear from the role outlined for education in the First Economic and Social Development Plan of 1964-1967. In the words of a high educational official, "The conviction that the principal wealth of a country is determined above all by the human quality of its inhabitants was, until recently, the opinion of a minority, but it is one which today forms part of the central ideology of a great current of opinion." [6] Events began to move with some speed.

From 1963 to 1969, there were many statements in the public and professional media in favor of educational reform. Ramón Bela of the *Instituto de Cultura Hispánica* in Madrid, and executive director of Spain's Fulbright Commission, reported that:

> The entire Spanish educational system needs revision. The problems of education have become major, nation-wide concerns; they are discussed on the front pages and in the editorial columns of our newspapers. Inside and outside educational circles, the theme of reform is constantly discussed. In 1968, as a result of this national preoccupation, a new team of recognized specialists in the Ministry of Education began an ambitious analysis and evaluation of the entire Spanish educational system.[7]

The outcome of this inquiry was the *Libro Blanco* of 1969. On the higher educational front, too, there was evidence of stirrings, to some extent in the form of books emphasizing the existence of a crisis—José Orlandis' *La crisis de la universidad en España* (1967), Pedro Lain Entralgo's *El problema de la universidad: reflexiones de urgencia* (1968), and others.

THE *LIBRO BLANCO*

There is a general consensus among Spanish and foreign educators that Ricardo Diez Hochleitner, the Under Secretary of Education in

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[4] Spain, Ministerio de Educación Nacional *and* O.C.D.E., Proyecto Regional Mediterraneo. *Las necesidades de educación y el desarrollo ecónomico-social de España.* Madrid, 1964.

[5] Ibid., p. 140. See also pp. 17, 26, and 35. This report, in a somewhat rearranged form, appeared in English: *The Mediterranean Regional Project: Spain.* Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1965. p. 97.

[6] Antonio Tena Artigas. *Education in the Economic and Social Development Plan (1964–1967).* Madrid: Editorial Gredos, 1966. p. 7.

[7] Ramón Bela. "Spanish Educational Reform—Three Views," *The Task of Universities in a Changing World* (Stephen D. Kertesz, ed.). Notre Dame, Ind.: University of Notre Dame Press, 1971. p. 353.

the Ministry of Education and Science and a man of wide international experience in educational affairs, was the prime mover in the campaign for reform. According to him, the reform was rooted in recent social and economic change, the *aggiornamento* of the Catholic Church, the development of the mass media, and the persistent student unrest in universities around the world. When the Minister of Education, José Luis Villar Palasí, called upon Mr. Diez Hochleitner to help in formulating a program toward academic change, the latter convinced him of the pressing necessity for a total educational reform. Coordinating his international experience with Spanish tradition, "a mix of the best educational ideas in the world . . . [and] the country's own genius and goals," Mr. Diez Hochleitner went to work during May to October 1968 with a small team of specialists that was to produce the *Libro Blanco*.[8] He overcame the initial opposition from teachers by involving them in planning the reform, with the Government cooperating by raising teacher salaries. In sum, asserted Mr. Diez Hochleitner, "This is an easy country to guide if faced with the right objectives."[9] This was borne out by the immense interest that the public showed in the *Libro Blanco*. Reviewed by an international advisory committee set up under the auspices of UNESCO,[10] this document enjoyed an unprecedented sale of 80,000 copies and had to be reissued in a second printing. After the *Libro Blanco* was approved by the cabinet and the *Cortes*, it was "submitted to a full national debate," stimulating "full public participation through the communication media."[11]

The *Libro Blanco*, officially entitled *La educación en España: Bases para una política educativa*, appeared in February 1969 and attracted immediate attention in professional circles. It was a white-bound, 254-page paperback which sold for 100 pesetas (about $1.50). It consisted of two parts. The first part contained 12 chapters and analyzed critically all aspects of the Spanish educational system; and the second outlined the foundations of a reform. What impressed foreign readers particularly was the inclusion of comparative graphs and charts that showed Spain to be an educationally disadvantaged nation in several respects vis-a-vis European countries and the United States.

The criticism of the Spanish educational system in part one of the *Libro Blanco* is cumulatively devastating. Charging that the school system has remained virtually unchanged for more than a century since the Moyano Law (1857), the document described it as outdated and inflexible. It also maintained that education in Spain was characterized by a meager budget, persistent illiteracy, inequality of educational op-

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[8] Interview with Ricardo Diez Hochleitner, Dec. 21, 1970, Ministry of Education and Science, Madrid.

[9] Ibid.

[10] See Comité de Cooperación Internacional para la reforma de la educación en España. *Informe final.* Madrid: Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia, 1969. The Committee consisted of 13 experts from 11 countries, including three—Philip H. Coombs, Clark Kerr, and James A. Perkins—from the United States. Ibid., p. 15.

[11] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Report: Educational Reform in Spain.* Presented to the International Conference on Education, Geneva, July 1–9, 1970. [Madrid] The Ministry, 1970. pp. 4–5.

portunity, inadequacy in school construction, stress on memorization, overintellectual primary schooling, out-of-date textbooks and teaching methods, ineffective teacher-training programs, defective examinations, oversized classes, excessive dropout rates (especially in higher technical schools), an antiquated and undemocratic structure of higher education, and deficient adult education. Very little was spared by the *Libro Blanco* in establishing the rationale for a speedy educational reform.[12]

The second part of the report, which does not appear in the official English translation, once again called for change and laid down general principles of the new educational policy, among them the Christian concept of life which undergirds "all human values" and the ideas of the *Movimiento Nacional*.[13] It then proceeded to outline the structure of the proposed new system; aims, curriculum, and methods on all levels; and the principles for applying the reform. In its concluding section, the report indicated that, before anything could be done, there would be a period for consulting public opinion in general and persons, organizations, and agencies most directly concerned with education in particular.[14] The final sentence is especially illuminating:

> In all cases, there should be an attempt to avoid the abrupt break with the existing systems by establishing reasonable steps of transition and adaptation to the new lines and requirements of the reforms which are to be applied.[15]

As provided by the *Libro Blanco*, the document evoked discussions, debates, and criticisms. In fact, the *Ministerio de Educación y Cultura* issued, later in 1969, two volumes of such reports. The first contained detailed commentaries by the *Comisión Episcopal de Enseñanza y Educación Religiosa*, the *Instituto de Estudios Políticos*, the *Consejo Nacional del Movimiento*, and the *Organización Sindical*—representing the Church, scholarship, the Party, and the labor union. In the second volume could be found shorter statements by teachers' and inspectors' organizations, five universities, and the *Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas*.

The Church complained of the neglect of religion and of the unfair treatment of private schools in the *Libro Blanco*.[16] The *Instituto de Estudios Políticos* remarked upon the vagueness of the concepts of the democratization and equalization of education.[17] According to the Party, a more precise description of school decentralization was necessary and too much educational research is questionable.[18] Like the others, the centralized union organization pointed to vagueness and lack of clarity, particularly with reference to the relation of society to

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[12] The English text of the introduction to the *Libro Blanco* by the Minister of Education and Science, José Luis Villar Palasí, is given in appendix C.

[13] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *La Educación en España: Bases para una politica educativa*. Madrid: The Ministry, 1969. p. 204.

[14] Ibid., p. 244.

[15] Ibid.

[16] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Informes sobre "La Educación en España: Bases para una politica educativa."* [Madrid] The Ministry, 1969. I:14–15, and 17.

[17] Ibid., I:45, 49–51.

[18] Ibid., I:83, 89.

the school.[19] In any event, the direct criticisms were usually accompanied by specific positive suggestions. Whatever the reaction, it was a source of satisfaction to the Minister, José Luis Villar Palasí, that the consultations resulted in a "unanimous" sentiment with regard to *"la necesidad de una reforma, de una reforma profunda, de nuestro sistema educativo."* [20]

The second compilation likewise was full of criticisms and suggestions. Thus, the secondary school teachers expressed opposition to any state aid to private schools that is not accompanied by state regulation.[21] One senses in the contributions by the Universities of La Laguna, Madrid, Salamanca, Santiago, and Valencia [22] a sentiment of some resistance to the reform, especially with respect to rapidity, expansion of autonomous universities, and curtailment of their traditional functions and powers. There are expressions of caution along various lines, including the increase of student power in higher education.

Having attained consensus concerning the need for educational reform—even if there was no agreement on the details—the Government decided to proceed with full speed ahead. A Draft Law of Education and Financing of the Educational Reform, formulated with little loss of time, was approved by the cabinet in September 1969 and then subjected to 13,000 amendments before being submitted by the Ministry of Education and Science to Parliament in April 1970.[23] Public interest in the law was reflected in lengthy reports in the newspapers and other media.[24] After a debate of several weeks, the Education Committee of the *Cortes* reported on the bill on May 20, 1970. In this form, the draft law had 146 articles which covered the vast expanse of the reform.[25] The *Cortes* enacted the bill into law on July 28, 1970, and it was signed by Generalísimo Francisco Franco on August 4. The *Ley General de Educación y Financiamento de la Reforma Educativa* was now in shape for the initiation of the reform.[26]

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[19] Ibid., I:100.

[20] Ibid., I:8.

[21] Ibid., II:40–41.

[22] Ibid., pp. 101–140.

[23] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Report: Educational Reform in Spain.* Op. cit., p. 5.

[24] See the extracts from *ABC, Arriba, Pueblo,* etc., in *Didascalia.* April 1970, I:16–25.

[25] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Articles of the General Education and Education Reform Financing Law as Approved by the Education Commission of the Spanish "Cortes" (Parliament).* Madrid: Imprenta Nacional del Boletín Oficial del Estado, 1970. This document contains the full text of the bill in English translation. The English text of the Title Preliminary and title I is given in appendix D.

[26] The complete text of the new law, which appeared in newspapers, was also published many times in booklet form. One of the official publications is *Ley 14/1970, de 4 de agosto, General de Educación y Financiamiento de la Reforma Educativa.* Madrid: Imprenta Nacional del Estado, 1970. The relation of the laws to the Constitution is shown in the chart in appendix A. The educational extracts of the Constitution appear in appendix B.

6. The Education Reform Law of 1970[1]

THE PREAMBLE

In the preamble to the new law, the Head of State stressed that "the educational system actually assumes tasks and responsibilities of unprecedented magnitude." [2] He went on to point out that educational opportunities must be made available to the entire Spanish people so as to fulfill the various needs of a modern society, national culture, and scientific and technical progress in as just a manner as possible. The new law is not intended to set up a system which imposes a "strict uniformity," but rather to offer all Spaniards an education in the spirit of "the most genuine and traditional national virtues" and is designed to give the individual a chance to advance, in accordance with the principle of equality of educational opportunity, as far as he can.

To accomplish the general and specific aims of the law, the role of the *Institutos de Ciencias de la Educación,* established in all universities, becomes of great significance.[3] Interestingly, the *Caudillo* [4] underscored the fact that the reform was inspired by an analysis of the Spanish school situation in the contrasting light of other countries' experiences. He also emphasized that the *flexibilidad* of the law would make possible the *reorientaciones e innovaciones necesarias* not merely for the reform itself, but also for the changing conditions of a dynamic society.[5]

In concluding the preamble, he stated that the new educational policy, in the words of the *Libro Blanco,* was " 'an act of faith in the future of Spain . . . [and that] the educational reform is a peaceful and silent revolution, but the most effective and profound in bringing about a more just society and life increasingly more human in every respect.' " [6]

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[1] Extracts from this law may be found in appendix D.

[2] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Ley 14/1970, de 4 de agosto, General de Educación y Financiamiento de la Reforma Educativa.* Madrid: Imprenta Nacional del Boletín Oficial del Estado, 1970. p. 5.

[3] Ibid., pp. 6–7.

[4] "Leader," one of Gen. Francisco Franco's official titles.

[5] Ibid., p. 8.

[6] Ibid., p. 10. The last sentence in Minister Villar Palisí's "Introduction to the *Libro Blanco.*

AIMS AND PRINCIPLES

According to the law of August 4, 1970, education of all types and on all levels aims at:

> 1. The human, integral, and harmonious development of personality and the preparation for the responsible exercise of liberty, inspired by a Christian conception of life and the national traditions and culture; social integration and advancement, and the promotion of the spirit of community; all in conformity with the Principles of the National Movement (Party) and the other Basic Laws of the Land.
> 2. The acquisition of study and work habits and qualification for the practice of professional activities which make it possible to set in motion and to promote the social, cultural, scientific, and economic development of the country.
> 3. The incorporation of the regional characteristics, the unity and the cultural heritage of Spain, as well as the promotion of the spirit of international understanding and cooperation.[7]

This statement seeks to balance the individual with the communal and national interests, the traditional and the modern, the past and the future, the national and the international. The Spanish Government, through this law, shows an eager desire to achieve modernization without sacrificing the values of its culture and religion, and certainly within the framework of the Franco political ideology. Apparently, the Spanish educational reformers must have convinced themselves that the old Roman policy of slow speed *(festina lente)* was still effective in the declining 20th century.

The law went on to reaffirm the right of every citizen to *una educación general y una formación profesional* provided by the Government so as to enable him to serve society's and his own needs effectively. Accordingly, all Spaniards (and foreign residents, too) are to receive a free, compulsory, basic general education and professional training of the first level if they do not attend a higher educational institution. With the realization of these goals, the law states that the Government would extend free education through the secondary school to the *bachillerato.* Special stress is laid on applying of the principle of equal opportunity for study beyond the compulsory stage. Under this principle, students will be evaluated on the basis of intellectual ability, aptitude, and personal progress, with the provision of subsidies and loans for those lacking financial means. The law also warns that those "who will not comply or who will make difficulties in compliance with the duty of compulsory education will be punished." [8]

The family possesses the fundamental and inalienable right and duty *(derecho primera y inalienable)* in educational matters, and exercises freedom of choice in relation to schools. However, responsibility for educational policy, programs, and supervision remains the province of the state, both with respect to public and private institutions. The law provides for establishing parent associations *(asociaciones de padres de alumnos)* so that parents would be able to take part in the education of their children.

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[7] Ibid., p. 11.
[8] Ibid., p. 12.

The Catholic Church retains its rights in line with article 6 of the Statute Law of the Spanish People *(Fuero de los Españoles)* of July 17, 1945, article 3 of the Law on the Principles of the National Movement of May 17, 1958, and article 1 of the Law of Succession in the Headship of State of July 27, 1947 (as amended by the Organic Law of the State of January 10, 1967). The rights and privileges of the Church in Spain were strengthened, of course, by the Concordat with the Holy See of August 27, 1953. Specifically, the law of August 4 stresses that the Spanish Government "recognizes and guarantees the rights of the Catholic Church . . . [in] religious education, and spiritual and moral action, both in public and in private schools. . . ." [9] Every situation regarding civil rights in relation to religious freedom will be governed by the law of June 26, 1967, on civil rights and religious freedom.

Article 8, the last of the Title Preliminary, which comprises the provisions summarized in the previous paragraphs, applies article 53 of the Organic Law of the State of January 10, 1967, to the educational reform. The new educational law is even more exacting than the Organic Law. The latter merely states: "The President of the Government and the Ministers shall inform the *Cortes* of the activities of the Government and of its respective Departments and, if necessary, must answer all requests, questions and summonses made according to regulations." [10] On the other hand, the Government (i.e., the *Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia*) is required to inform the Parliament "whenever it deems it convenient, and in any case annually . . . concerning the application of the present Law, as well as the results obtained, and will propose, as it proceeds, the changes which it deems necessary for its realization." [11] In the words of Under Secretary of Education Diez Hochleitner, article 8 is "one of the great accomplishments" of the new law, in point of actual fact one of the true innovations in the reform movement. As he saw it, the continuous evaluation and periodic updating of the educational reform represents a basic departure from the pattern of administration of a national system of education.[12] At the time of writing, the first annual report of the Ministry of Education and Science had not been published.

TITLE I: EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

The Preliminary Title is followed by five numbered titles dealing with the educational system as a whole,[13] the various types of institu-

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[9] Ibid., p. 14. It is interesting to note the recent observation by a cultural analyst: "There is no education not under the control of the Church and its orientation is to the past." James A. Michener. *Iberia: Spanish Travels and Reflections.* Greenwich, Conn.: Fawcett Publications, 1968. p. 61.

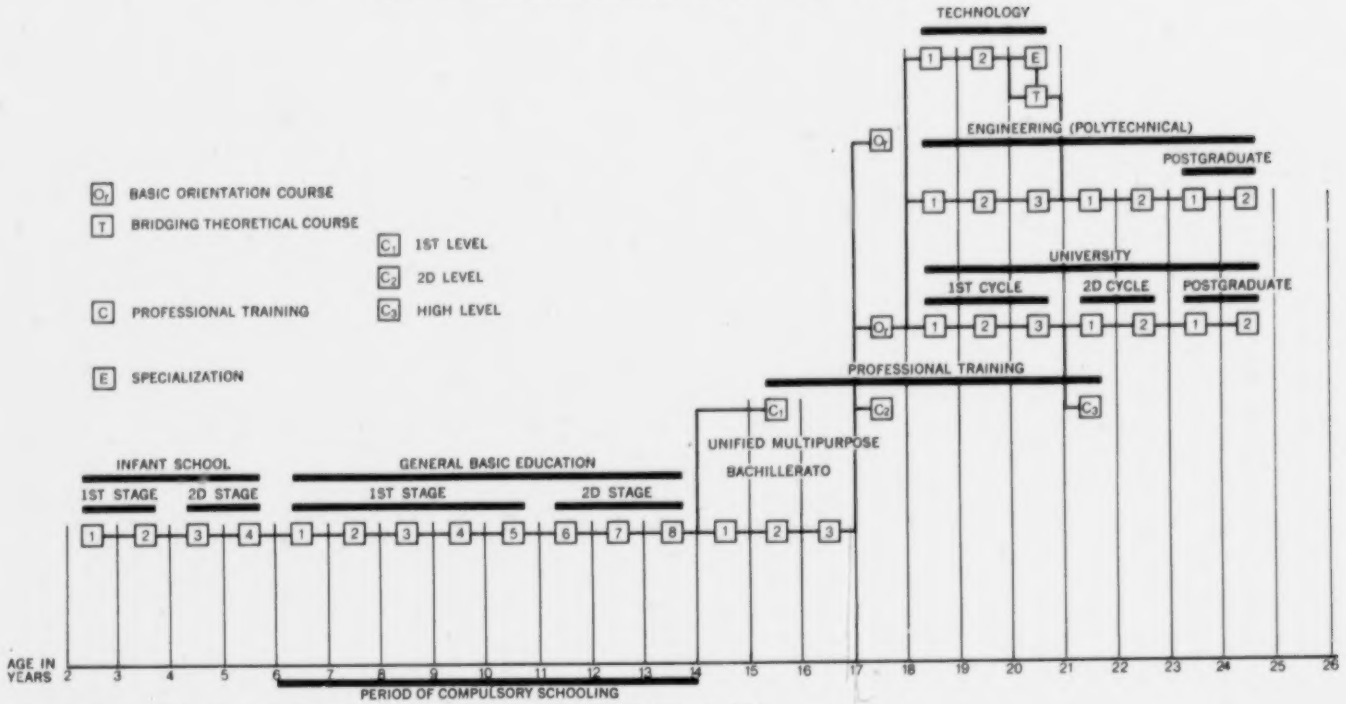
[10] *Fundamental Laws of the State: The Spanish Constitution.* Madrid: Servicio Informative Español, 1967.

[11] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Ley 14/1970, de 4 de agosto, General de Educación y Financiamiento de la Reforma Educativa.* Op. cit.

[12] Interview on Dec. 21, 1970, in Madrid.

[13] The structure of the mandated system appears in chart 2.

Chart. 2. Mandated structure of the Spanish education system



Source: Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Report: Educational Reform in Spain.* Madrid: The Ministry, 1971.

tions, the teaching profession, the student, and educational administration. Title I begins with several general provisions which build upon the previous portions of the law. Of special significance is the requirement of cooperation by out-of-school institutions, such as libraries and museums, toward fulfilling the objectives of the new reform. Also noteworthy is the specification of how educational institutions will be evaluated:

> . . . the average performance by the students in their academic and professional careers; the academic degrees held by the teachers; the student-teacher ratio; the availability and utilization of modern instructional media and methods; educational, cultural, and athletic facilities and activities; the number and significance of the courses; educational and professional guidance services and the training and experience of institutional administrators, as well as their relations to the families of the students and with the community in which [the school] is located.[14]

Preschool Education

Public preschool education, which is free but not compulsory and aims at "the harmonious development of the personality of the child," consists of the nursery school and the kindergarten. What is especially interesting in the preschool curriculum is not only the inclusion of *principios religiosos y actitudes morales,* but even more the *lengua nativa;* i.e., Catalan, Basque, or other local idiom. In view of the recent unrest in some parts of the country, the provision of learning a minority tongue seems to be a step toward defusing some of the tension within the country. The recommended preschool procedure is activity in order to attain within the child "the development of spontaneity, creativity, and responsibility." [15]

Elementary Education

The 8-year elementary education program offers all children a common course, but it is to be adapted wherever possible to individual aptitude and capability. Elementary education consists of two levels: (1) for children aged 6 to 10, an interdisciplinary general course of study; (2) for pupils aged 11 to 13, a somewhat diversified program enabling them, through guidance, to choose patterns of further study and work. The aims for the 6 to 13 age group are as follows: To develop and utilize good study habits and observational and thinking skills; to acquire *nociones y hábitos religioso-morales;* to form cooperative attitudes and aptitudes in relation to the local, national, and international community; to initiate aesthetic and artistic appreciation; and to develop sociocivic awareness and ability in physical train-

[14] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Ley 14/1970, de 4 de agosto, General de Educación y Financiamiento de la Reforma Educativa.* Op. cit., pp. 16–17.

[15] Ibid., p. 18.

ing and sports. The content covers Spanish, a foreign language, the local idiom (wherever applicable), "the foundations of religious culture," basic mathematics and science, mechanics and domestic activities, social studies, and any other subject or skill leading to the secondary school or the technical school of the first level. The methods of instruction include pupil-teacher cooperative work, the extensive use of audiovisual techniques, and visitation to industrial plants, institutions, business establishments, and other places within the community.

The successful completion of the elementary education sequence entitles the pupil to the certificate of *graduado escolar* and makes him eligible for admission to the secondary school. Those whose work is not consistently satisfactory receive, after appropriate tests, the *certificado de escolaridad* which qualifies them for the professional (technical) school of the first level.[16]

Secondary Education

Secondary education (*bachillerato*) represents a further development of individuals aged 14 to 16 in the direction of higher education, professional training, and civic activity. The particular aims of the secondary school comprise character formation; the development of religious-moral and civic-social outlooks; the inculcation of study, work, self-disciplinary habits; and physical education—all in an active, cooperative scholastic milieu. While the addition of factual knowledge is regarded as important, it is not as crucial as development of the ability to organize, synthesize, and interrelate facts and ideas in a meaningful manner. The secondary curriculum is made up of required and elective sequences. The former covers: Spanish language and literature, elementary Latin, and foreign language; art, music, and religion; physics, chemistry, biology, and mathematics; Spanish geography or history, philosophy, and political, social, and economic training; and physical education and sports. Electives, which must include Greek, generally constitute additional courses in the subject-matter areas already mentioned and are subject to consultation with an *Instituto de Ciencias de la Educación* and to approval by the *Ministerio*. Since the curriculum of the technical high schools must also be approved by the Ministry, it is clear that the reform does not contemplate a radical departure from the traditional system of administrative centralization.

The policy of instruction accentuates the learner's initiative and creativity, research rather than the teacher's explanation, and the practical application of subject matter. The recommended outcome is *la educación personalizada*,[17] which is attained through activity methods differentiated on the basis of sex. Successful completion of the secondary school course earns the student the diploma of *bachiller*,

[16] Ibid., p. 20.

[17] Ibid., p. 23. For the significance of this approach, see Victor García Hoz, *Educación personalizada*. Madrid: Instituto de Pedagogía de C.S.I.C., 1970.

which is awarded by the *Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia* and admits him to professional training of the second level or the preuniversity (orientation) course.

Higher Education

According to the law of August 4, higher education aims to complete the youth's development as a whole person, to prepare young people fully for the technical, scientific, learned, and other professions needed by the country, and to help improve the national educational system and socioeconomic status. The preuniversity course (*curso de orientación*) lasts 1 year and is open to the holder of a *bachiller* diploma and to outstanding graduates of the second level of professional training. Its function is primarily guidance, seeking to deepen the students' knowledge of the secondary courses, to promote interests toward professional careers, and to furnish the intellectual skills needed for higher educational work. Included in the course of study are short courses and seminars offered by qualified specialists who introduce the students to the variety of areas of study and professional activity. Instruction is given in secondary schools under the supervision of universities and in conformity with the directives of the *Ministerio.*

After passing the preuniversity course, the student is eligible to be admitted to a university or to a professional school of higher educational level. Access to higher education is also available to men and women over 25 without a *bachiller* diploma who pass the university entrance examinations. All programs of study in higher education must first be approved by the *Junta Nacional de Universidades* (National Council of Universities) before they are submitted for checking against the guidelines of the *Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia.* The completion of the first cycle of higher education, 3 years in length, results in granting of the *diplomado* (equivalent approximately to a bachelor's degree) or of lower arhitectural or engineering degrees entitling the holders to practice professionally. Then follows a more specialized second cycle of 2 years, after which the student receives the degree of *licenciado* (approximately equivalent to a master's degree), *ingeniero,* or *arquitecto.* The third cycle, which requires the preparation and acceptance of a dissertation, confers the doctorate (approximately equivalent to the Ph.D.).[18]

Other Education

The remaining sections of title I deal with three types of professional training, various forms of education of adults, and the special education of the mentally retarded and the physically handicapped. All

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[18] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Ley 14/1970, de 4 de agosto, General de Educación y Financiamiento de la Reforma Educativa.* Op. cit., p. 28.

professional training programs must be approved by the Cabinet on the basis of standards drawn up by the *Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia* in cooperation with the other concerned ministries.[19] Similarly, the adult education courses must receive the approval of this ministry after recommendations by other ministries, unions, organizations, and other interested parties.[20]

TITLE II: INSTITUTIONS

The centralizing tendency reflected in title I is reinforced by the initial paragraph of title II, which stipulates that all educational institutions in Spain and Spanish schools operating abroad are required to meet the standards and later provisions of the 1970 law, and to be registered and inspected by the *Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia*.[21] The term *all* encompasses both those financed by the Government and the private (including Church) schools. The new law grants freedom (*autonomía*) to educational institutions to experiment with new instructional methods and optional programs, to set up their own administrative and organizational systems, and to make the adaptations which may be necessary in a particular community.

Many functions, however, remain within the power of the *Ministerio*. Thus, maximum limits of teacher-student ratios and the maximum enrollments in the different types of institutions are to be determined by the central authority in Madrid.[22] The appointment of elementary and secondary school principals, upon teachers' recommendations to be sure, is also made by the *Ministerio*.[23] The universities are autonomous with respect to instruction, grading, research, organization, and administration, but under the Ministry's *coordinación*. The universities, which are under the control of the National Auditing Board must have their budgets approved by the Ministry of the Treasury and the Cabinet after they receive the recommendation of the *Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia*, and must have them coordinated with the general governmental budgets. The annual report by a university concerning its activities and results must also include the pertinent financial data of the administration. Upon approval by the Cabinet the report is then published.[24] The statutes of a university may be suspended, according to the new law, under circumstances of "serious academic, administrative, or financial irregularities," and the government is empowered to set up "provisional standards . . . during the period of suspension."[25]

The law lays down detailed regulations concerning the administra-

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[19] Ibid., pp. 29–30.
[20] Ibid., p. 30.
[21] Ibid., p. 34.
[22] Ibid., p. 35.
[23] Ibid., pp. 36–37.
[24] Ibid., p. 40.
[25] Ibid., p. 41.

tion and organization of universities. The *Ministerio* appoints the rector, vice rector, *gerente* (manager of nonacademic personnel, finance, and general administration), deans, institute directors, and departmental chairmen after receiving recommendations from the administration and faculty. Students are represented in the *claustro* (faculty), the highest corporate body in the university.[26] The remainder of title II contains specifications and regulations for the professional schools, adult education, and the nongovernmental institutions.

TITLE III: THE TEACHING PROFESSION

In title III are found the provisions concerning the teaching profession on all levels. It is interesting, from the standpoint of international experience, especially in the United States, to note that one requirement for all teachers, including full university professors, is pedagogical training (*formación pedagógica*) at an *Instituto de Ciencias de la Educación* (I.C.E.).[27] The future university professor must obtain this training while working on his doctorate or while serving as an assistant professor. Only those who have specialized in pedagogy at the university are exempt from the requirement of study at an I.C.E.[28] Other noteworthy provisions stress upgrading of teaching and administrative qualifications and provide for the award of the Order of Educational Merit (*Orden al Mérito Docente*) for excellent service, dispensing with the elementary teacher's examination for a university graduate with an overall record of *sobresaliente* (A average), the appointment of full professors by the *Ministerio*, and retention of competitive examinations (*concurso-oposiciones*) in professional selection.

TITLE IV: THE STUDENT

The student is the subject of title IV of the new law. Here are spelled out the various rights and privileges of pupils and students in the various types of schools. Article 128 calls upon students to suggest changes in courses, as well as to evaluate in writing the educational program, the teachers, and the methods of the institution from which they are about to graduate—so as ". . . to contribute to the improvement of the instruction to be received by later classes of students."[29] Another important provision is that the student has the right to carry on his studies at his school ". . . with the obligation not to disturb the order and the academic discipline."[30]

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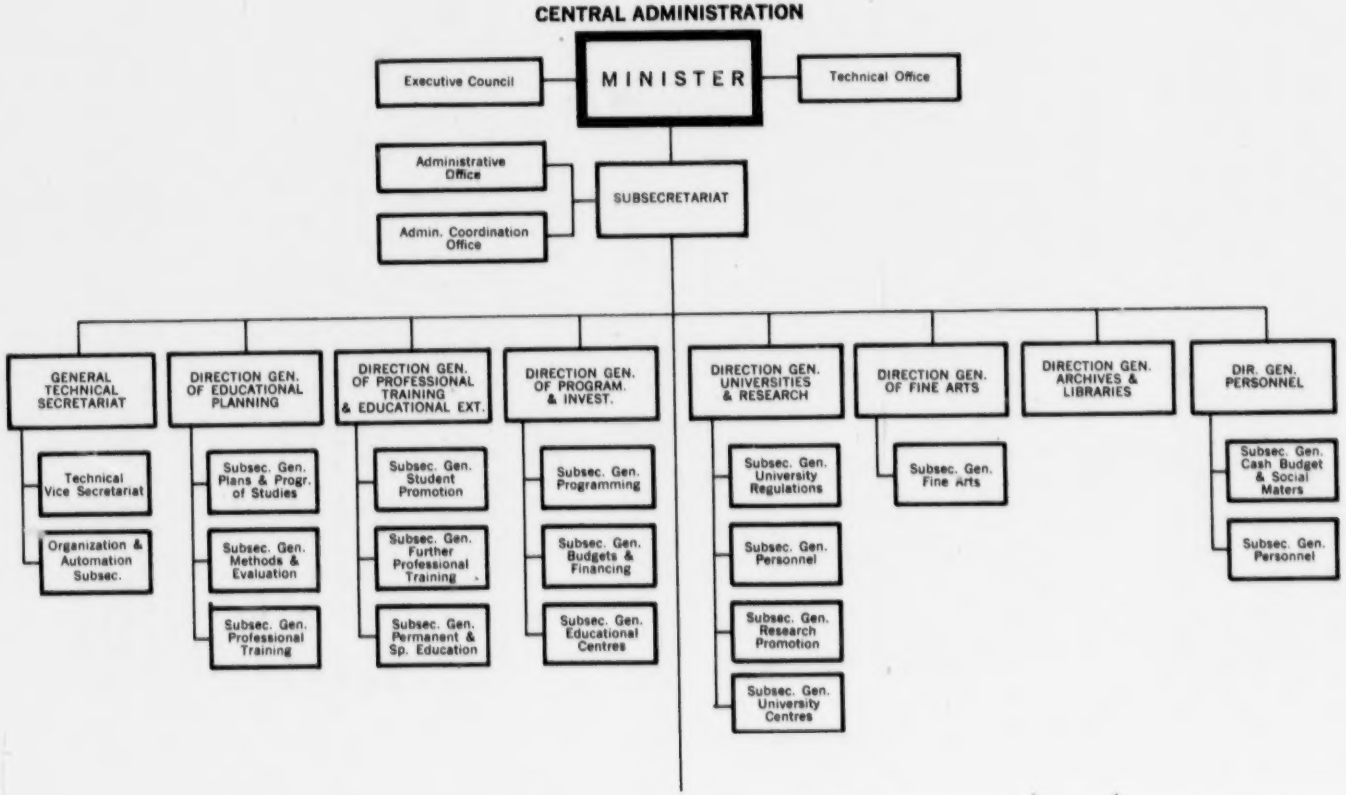
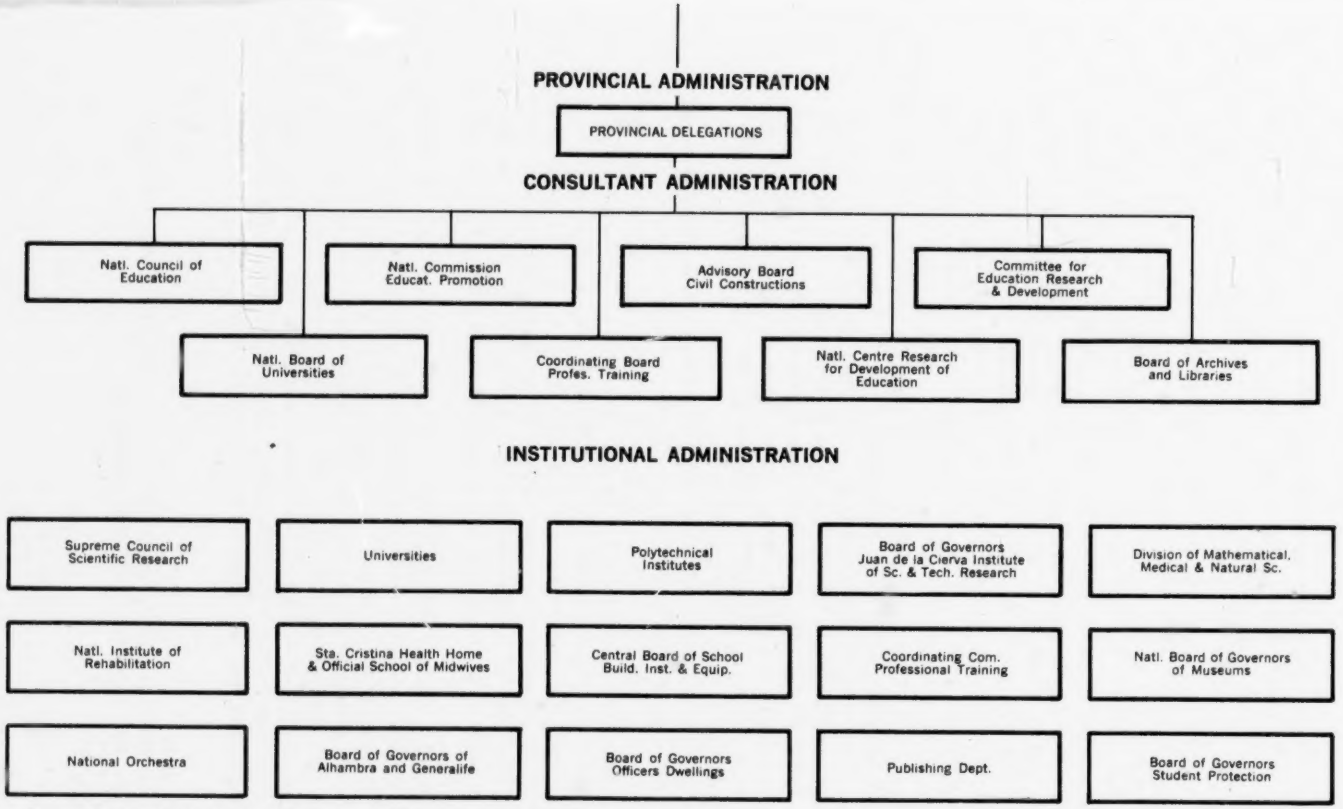
[26] Ibid., p. 48.
[27] Ibid., p. 58.
[28] For further information on the I.C.E.'s, see chapter 8, "Educational Innovations."
[29] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Ley 14/1970, de 4 de agosto, General de Educación y Financiamiento de la Reforma Educativa.* Op. cit., p. 72.
[30] Ibid., p. 73.

Chart 3. Organization of the Ministry of Education and Science: 1971


CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION
Executive Council
MINISTER
Technical Office
Administrative Office
Admin. Coordination Office
SUBSECRETARIAT
GENERAL TECHNICAL SECRETARIAT
Technical Vice Secretariat
Organization & Automation Subsec.
DIRECTION GEN. OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING
Subsec. Gen. Plans & Progr. of Studies
Subsec. Gen. Methods & Evaluation
Subsec. Gen. Professional Training
DIRECTION GEN. OF PROFESSIONAL TRAINING & EDUCATIONAL EXT.
Subsec. Gen. Student Promotion
Subsec. Gen. Further Professional Training
Subsec. Gen. Permanent & Sp. Education
DIRECTION GEN. OF PROGRAM. & INVEST.
Subsec. Gen. Programming
Subsec. Gen. Budgets & Financing
Subsec. Gen. Educational Centres
DIRECTION GEN. UNIVERSITIES & RESEARCH
Subsec. Gen. University Regulations
Subsec. Gen. Personnel
Subsec. Gen. Research Promotion
Subsec. Gen. University Centres
DIRECTION GEN. OF FINE ARTS
Subsec. Gen. Fine Arts
DIRECTION GEN. ARCHIVES & LIBRARIES
DIR. GEN. PERSONNEL
Subsec. Gen. Cash Budget & Social Maters
Subsec. Gen. Personnel


PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION
PROVINCIAL DELEGATIONS
CONSULTANT ADMINISTRATION
Natl. Council of Education
Natl. Commission Educat. Promotion
Advisory Board Civil Constructions
Committee for Education Research & Development
Natl. Board of Universities
Coordinating Board Profes. Training
Natl. Centre Research for Development of Education
Board of Archives and Libraries
INSTITUTIONAL ADMINISTRATION
Supreme Council of Scientific Research
Universities
Polytechnical Institutes
Board of Governors Juan de la Cierva Institute of Sc. & Tech. Research
Division of Mathematical, Medical & Natural Sc.
Natl. Institute of Rehabilitation
Sta. Cristina Health Home & Official School of Midwives
Central Board of School Build. Inst. & Equip.
Coordinating Com. Professional Training
Natl. Board of Governors of Museums
National Orchestra
Board of Governors of Alhambra and Generalife
Board of Governors Officers Dwellings
Publishing Dept.
Board of Governors Student Protection

Source: Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Report: Educational Reform in Spain.* Madrid: The Ministry, 1971.

TITLE V: EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Title V treats the plans for administration of the new educational reform. The Government pledges itself, first of all, to make adequate provision for free, compulsory elementary education in all parts of the country, in accordance with the principle of equal educational opportunity in both rural and urban areas. In addition, it will establish new high schools, universities, and professional schools to furnish additional opportunities and to improve facilities and programs. The key organization for carrying out the reform is the Ministry of Education and Science, which has among its many other responsibilities that of being the highest echelon of educational administration and supervision, both of public and private institutions.[31] The authority of the *Ministerio* even extends to institutions administered by other ministries, the central trade union (*Organización Sindical*), and other Government agencies, but not to the military academies of the Army, Navy, and Air Force, the police training schools, and theological seminaries. And even in these instances, the Ministry's right in regard to "coordination and confirmation" is not prejudiced.[32]

Apart from supervising institutions, the *Ministerio* is also charged with the responsibility of examining and approving all educational and cultural foundations and associations which carry on educational functions, whether exclusively or along with other activities. Some element of choice is allowed in a program, but all financial matters must follow the official regulations.[33]

The new law provides authority for the *Ministerio* to establish and discontinue agencies in connection with the reform, recruit qualified personnel from various sources, and set up provincial offices. Special stress is laid on a *Servicio de Inspección Técnica de Educación* which will ensure compliance with the educational laws and regulations, evaluate teaching performance, aid in the solution of problems, and cooperate in organizing inservice courses for teachers. Significantly, the law requires that the inspectors are to take special courses of professional improvement, at least every 3 years, at Institutes of Educational Sciences.[34]

Article 145 outlines the functions of the *Consejo Nacional de Educación* (National Council of Education), "the highest advisory body" of the *Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia* on educational affairs. This is to be a group which represents the broad spectrum of national interest and concern in education. The membership is nominated by the *Ministerio* and is subject to confirmation by the Cabinet. The *Consejo* is expected to suggest further reform legislation, international cultural agreements, and other measures which will advance the cause

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[31] Ibid., p. 75.

[32] Ibid., p. 76. Chart 3 shows how the Ministry was organized in 1971. For further information, see chapter 8—"Educational Innovations."

[33] Ibid., p. 77.

[34] Ibid., p. 80.

of education.[35] The final article, number 146, provides for a *Junta Nacional de Universidades,* which is the Ministry's advisory body concerning "the coordination" of higher educational institutions, and which is composed of university rectors and chairmen of trustee boards (*patronato*). This body is under the chairmanship of the Minister of Education and Science.[36]

The remainder of the text of the law of August 4, 1970, consists of a number of "final," "temporary," and "additional" provisions, all of which precede the signatures of Francisco Franco and the president of the *Cortes,* Alejandro Rodríguez de Valcárel y Nebreda. In this section, the *Ministerio* is authorized "to clarify and interpret this law" and to suggest to the Cabinet the provisions which should aid in furthering the reform.[37] This specification would seem to remove all possible doubt as to who possesses the power and the responsibility in all educational matters in Spain.

PROVISION FOR GRADUAL IMPLEMENTATION

Of great significance to the future of the educational reform is the first temporary provision, which makes it clear that change will not be accomplished speedily. The expectation is that 10 years will be required for the gradual implementation (*implantación gradual*) of the law. The framers of the new reform are well aware that changes will have to be introduced piecemeal, "by levels, stages, cycles, and courses of instruction, as well as by geographic areas or types of schools; all this in due regard to the availability of teachers, premises, equipment, and other conditions which ensure the effectiveness of education." [38] The old system and the developing new system will exist for several years side by side, but the old will be discontinued as advisable. According to Mr. Diez Hochleitner, there will be a balance between the sciences and the humanities as the reform progresses. The three traditional requirements of the Spanish educational systems (the *Tres Marías* in popular parlance)—religion, citizenship, sports—will no longer be compulsory. Coeducation and sex education are planned for the new curriculum, in accordance with request by parents. A variety of source books and teaching materials will replace the textbooks in instruction. In brief, the reform will be pervasive and thorough-going, as the Under Secretary of Education emphasized.[39] This type of planning, the Spanish officials realize, is ambitious, but they recognize the necessity for it. To an observer, the gradualist procedure seems to be reasonably practicable, bearing in mind the cultural experience and educational history of the Spanish people.

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[35] Ibid., p. 81.
[36] Ibid.
[37] Ibid., p. 82.
[38] Ibid., p. 83.
[39] Interview with Ricardo Diez Hochleitner, Dec. 21, 1970, Madrid.

7. The Reform in Action

The first step in official actualization of the new law was the promulgation by the *Ministerio de Ciencia y Educación,* August 22, 1970, of a decree establishing a timetable (*calendario*) for applying the educational reform. This was followed, at frequent intervals, by more decrees, orders, and resolutions through the rest of 1970 and throughout 1971. It is obvious that it would not be possible, within a report of limited size, to analyze each new step in the reform, even if all documents had been available at the time of writing. The most feasible approach, then, is to analyze selected, representative decrees and to attempt to show how they pertain to the objectives and direction of the *reforma educativa.*

The decrees and orders appeared in the *Boletín Oficial del Estado,* the *Boletín Oficial del Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia,* and in other ministerial publications. As in the case of the *Libro Blanco* and the law of August 4, these were also publicized in newspapers and other media, both professional and lay.

THE CALENDAR DECREE

The decree of August 22, 2459/1970, sums up and interprets concisely some of the main provisions of the education reform law and then goes on to specify the chronological order of the changes. First of all, this decree stresses the fact of the "gradual introduction" (*implantación gradual*) of the new educational system, beginning with the preschools depending upon the training of new, specialized personnel. The chronological order of the changes is as follows.

> *1970–71.*—The first 4 years of general basic education will be modified, in an experimental and limited manner in those schools specified by the *Ministerio.*
>
> *1971–72.*—The reform will reach: (1) The fifth year of general basic education, (2) the university guidance year, and (3) the first year of the university, experimentally.
>
> *1972–73.*—The reform will reach: (1) The sixth year of general basic education, (2) the first year of the unified and polyvalent secondary school, (3) the first year of the university, (4) the first year of the first cycle of the university technical departments and the higher technical schools, and (5) the second university year, experimentally. In addition, the new program of vocational training of the first level will be introduced that year.

1973–74.—The reform will reach: (1) the seventh year of general basic education, (2) the second year of the secondary school, (3) the second year of the university, (4) the second year of the first cycle of the university departments and the higher schools of technology, and (5) the third year of the university, experimentally. In addition, introduction of the first cycle of vocational education will be completed and the second cycle begun.

1974–75.—The reform will reach: (1) the eighth year of general basic education, (2) the third year of the secondary school, (3) the third year of the university, and (4) the third year of the first cycle of the university departments of technology and of the higher technical institutions. In addition, the introduction of the second level of vocational training will be completed.

1975–76.—The reform will reach the first year of the second cycle of university education and will introduce vocational education of the third level. In the meantime, as in the earlier years, "the gradual application of the new educational system will continue."[1]

1976–77.—The reform will reach the second year of the second cycle of university education.

1977–80.—The new third cycle of university education will make its appearance.

By 1980, all courses of study of the old system will have been terminated on all scholastic levels and the new educational reform will have been implemented in its entirety.

After presenting the calendar for the reform, the decree indicated the schedule for introducing free education. In the first place, preschool, general basic (elementary) education, and vocational training of the first level are to be free, effective immediately, in all state schools, and imposition of any fees upon pupils prohibited. Likewise, free education is to prevail in those private schools which had been free prior to the new law, with the requirement that all other private schools will be free unless they offer instruction which corresponds to the nonfree academic levels.[2] The decree was signed by Francisco Franco and cosigned by Mr. Villar Palasí.

DECREE FOR EDUCATIONAL EXPERIMENTATION

Of particular significance was the fact that the calendar decree was accompanied, also on August 22, 1970, by additional decrees to propel the reform forward. Thus, decree 2481/1970 sets up regulations regarding experimental centers and provides authorization for experimentation within the regular schools, in coordination with the Institutes of

[1] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. "Decreto 2459/1970, de 22 de agosto, sobre calendario para aplicación de la reforma educativa," *Boletín Oficial del Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia.* Número 73, Sept. 10, 1970, pp. 2014–15.

[2] Ibid., p. 2015.

the Sciences of Education. The experimental pilot centers in public elementary and secondary schools, vocational training of the first two levels, special education, and elementary teacher preparation schools will be under the direct supervision and control of the *Institutos de Ciencias de la Educación* (I.C.E.), which may also supervise public and private experimental centers.[3] This emphasis on and encouragement of educational experimentation was buttressed by the order of September 30 which declared *"investigación"* to be "the key element of educational reform." [4] It laid down regulations for experimentation and indicated the steps by which experimental programs will be approved by the *Ministerio.* The coordination of experimental work, as already stated in decree 2481, is under the jurisdiction of the I.C.E. of the area, and coordination on a national level will be the function of the National Center of Research for the Development of Education (*Centro Nacional de Investigaciones para el Desarrollo de la Educación*).[5]

DECREE AND ORDER FOR CONTINUOUS EVALUATION

Final examinations for the elementary certificate (*bachiller elemental*) were abolished by decree 2618, August 22, 1970. In its place, the reform instituted a system of continuous evaluation of the pupil's educational achievement. The new procedure, under the joint administration of all the pupils' teachers, was to apply to the fourth year of the elementary school during 1970–71.[6] Pupils passing the final course of the fourth year are to be awarded a certificate. The teachers are to observe and appraise scholastic work, personality development, and attitudes toward instruction, and study.[7] This innovation is in accord with the principle of flexibility propounded in the *Libro Blanco* and the law of August 4.

The question of continuous evaluation received further attention in the final months of 1970. Thus, the order of November 16 laid down the basic principles and professional guidelines of evaluation. Stress was laid on the necessity of learning as much as possible about the

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[3] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. "Decreto 2481/1970, de 22 de agosto, sobre Centros experimentales y autorización para la experimentación en Centros ordinarios," *Boletín Oficial del Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia,* Número 73. Sept. 10, 1970, p. 2020.

[4] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. "Orden de 30 de septiembre de 1970 por la que se desarrollon las normas sobre Centros experimentales y autorización para la experimentación en Centros ordinarios del Decreto 2481/1970," *Boletín Oficial del Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia.* Número 87, Oct. 29, 1970, p. 2390.

[5] Ibid.

[6] "Decreto 2618/1970, de 22 de agosto, sobre sustitución de las actuales pruebas de grado de Bachiller Elemental y establecimiento de la evaluación continua del rendimiento educativo de los alumnos," *Boletín Oficial del Estado.* Número 225, Sept. 19, 1970, p. 15440.

[7] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Report: Educational Reform in Spain.* Madrid: The Ministry, 1971. p. 19.

pupil—his physical and psychological status, home environment, and scholastic background.[8] Directives on evaluation were given, in addition, in resolutions by the Director General of Secondary Education on November 17 and by the Director General of Elementary Education on November 25. While these added little to the previous regulations, they did emphasize once more the principle that proper evaluation is inherent in the function of the teacher on all levels for the purposes of grading, promotion, and remedial instruction. A particular requirement was the forwarding of each evaluation to the office of the provincial inspector for his information and records.[9]

ORDERS REGARDING HIGHER EDUCATION

Two orders were of special pertinence to higher education. The order of September 15 made it possible for persons above 25 who lacked the *bachillerato* certificate to take qualifying examinations for admission to all universities and higher technical institutes.[10] These tests are to be administered by each institution, which will also provide educational guidance to the candidates. In the view of the *Ministerio,* this order represented "one of the most important democratizing principles in the Education Law." [11] Moreover, it was in accord with the tendencies toward broadening access to higher education in other countries in Europe, as, for example, in Germany.

The second order, on September 30, dealt with establishing, on an experimental basis, a preuniversity orientation course. This program is designed for the academic and professional guidance of the students. Not only are they to learn about the different higher educational institutions, but also methods of study and research. The curriculum is to consist of a common core of Spanish, a modern foreign language, mathematics, and religion, constituting at most half of the course. In addition, there are to be electives in science, humanities, social science, pedagogy, and aesthetics. The principle of continual evaluation is to prevail, as in the lower schools.[12]

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[8] "Orden de 16 de noviembre de 1970 (Educación y Ciencia) sobre evaluación continua del rendimiento educativo de los alumnos," *Boletín Oficial del Estado,* Número 282, Nov. 25, 1970.

[9] "Resolución de la Dirección General de Enseñanza Primaria por la que se dan instrucciones sobre evaluación continua en la Educación General Básica," *Boletín Oficial del Estado.* Número 289, Dec. 3, 1970, p. 19650.

[10] "Orden de 15 de septiembre de 1970 por la que se regula el acceso a los estudios universitarios de los mayores de veinticinco años que no hayan cursado el Bachillerato," *Boletín Oficial del Estado.* Número 226, Sept. 21, 1970, p. 15534.

[11] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Report: Educational Reform in Spain.* Op. cit., p. 19.

[12] "Orden de 30 de septiembre de 1970 por la que se dictan normas para la implantación con carácter experimental del curso de orientación universitaria para el año académica 1970–1971," *Boletín Oficial del Estado.* Número 250, Oct. 19, 1970, pp. 16975–76.

PEDAGOGICAL GUIDELINES FOR GENERAL BASIC EDUCATION

Additional guidelines were publicized by the *Ministerio* in December 1970, and subsequently in 1971. These became more and more specific as a result of experience with the reform, as well as after numerous conferences and discussions. The various *disposiciones* indicate that the broad educational reform, as envisaged in the *Libro Blanco* and the law of August 4, 1970, required complementary action if the contemplated changes were to take effect.

The reform proceeded, under the terms of the ministry's order of December 2, 1970, with the promulgation of pedagogical guidelines for general basic education—i.e., primary, secondary, and vocational schools. These were formulated by a Ministerial Commission of Plans, Courses of Study, and Evaluation consisting of 14 officials under the cochairmanship of María Angeles Galino Carrillo, director general of secondary and vocational education, and Eugenio López y López, director general of elementary education.[13] This detailed document represented the *nueva orientación*, the new direction of education for the years to come, subject to future ministerial orders which would be based on the cumulative experience of the reform. The point of departure is that of article 15 of the law of August 4 which emphasizes the equality of educational opportunity for all in accordance with one's aptitudes and abilities. The accent, as might be expected, is on change in curriculum and methods, but the recommendations are not mandatory and certainly not imposed dictatorially (*imperativamente*). Rather, they are suggestions which are meant to be experimental in nature, since education is a task that is never completed. The purpose of the *nueva orientación pedagógica* is to promote the *expansión y democratización* of education in Spain by means of the *renovación profunda* of the entire system, in line with the objectives of the General Law of Education, but with diversity of means in tune with the diversity of the nation.[14]

General Principles

The guidelines review the general principles of the reform, stressing the 10 following points: (1) Individualized education; (2) a curriculum centered on the interaction of "areas of expression" and "areas of experience;" (3) instruction based on the results of research; (4) "didactic innovation;" (5) interrelation of the school and the community; (6) continuous guidance of pupils; (7) continuous evaluation; (8) teacher participation in planning and programming; (9) individualization of the style of the school; and (10) the permanent reorientation of the system as a whole and of the schools on the basis

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[13] *Vida escolar*. XI-XII, Número 124–26, December 1970-February 1971, p. 8.
[14] Ibid., p. 11.

of the generalized experiences and "the new needs of society in a changing world." [15]

Aims and Content

The blueprint goes on to describe in more specific detail the aims and content of general basic education. The objectives not only lay much weight on cognitive learning, but they also point up the significance of aesthetic appreciation, physical development, vocational competence, attitudes of local, national, and international belonging, and religious habit and values. The content revolves around the areas of expression and of experience. The former includes language and mathematics; the latter, natural science, social and cultural subjects, and religious education. The modernity of the recommendations is exemplified in the teaching of foreign languages. Grammar is not to be stressed in the early stage and the native language is to be used under specific circumstances only. Memorization should be avoided in mathematics and in other subjects. Numerous activities are suggested in all subject matter and skill areas, so that the educational process becomes an activated experience.

Religious Education

The importance of religious education under the educational reform is clear from the fact that it is presented in a section of over 20 pages, considerably more than are given to any other branch of the curriculum. The guidelines assert that, in view of Vatican II, it has become necessary to reevaluate and rediscover the faith, especially among children and preadolescents. Apart from the development of morality in terms of the pupil's psychological stage, the teaching of religion involves the study of the Bible and the liturgy, as well as loyalty to the Church. In the dimension of moral attitudes is belief in creation as the result of the word of God and in the reality of the Invisible and the Intangible.[16] While school catechisms are to be used, the fundamental nature of religious education is the child's own religious experiencing.

Content and Methods

A considerable portion of the guidelines is devoted to specific content and methods of instruction in all subjects. Another section deals with the procedures of continuous pupil evaluation, with particular reference to the various subjects. The document recommends Spanish and foreign achievement, intelligence, and sociometric tests. One sug-

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[15] Ibid., pp. 13–14.
[16] Ibid., p. 49.

gested method is cooperative pupil-teacher evaluation which would aid the pupil in motivation and in reinforcement of learning.

Organization and Timing

The last part of the guidelines deals with the organization and timing of the scholastic work. Here is reiterated the principle of article 3 of the law of August 4, that education must consider the needs of public service, and, accordingly, there should be "maximum collaboration" in all respects on the part of teachers and pupils in the schools.

School organization represents a function of educational theory. It is in every sense, assert the guidelines, a means to an end, rather than an end in itself. The *organización escolar*, accordingly, is "a dynamic structure at the service of some specific objectives" and it must take into account the availability of "possibilities, resources, and persons." It is hardly advisable to set up "rigid criteria" which would limit organizational flexibility in the future. The proposals outlined in the guidelines are regarded as having the status of "stimulus and example." In sum, school organization should be "functional, flexible, and effective," subject to review and to the evaluation of the innovations.[17]

The underlying principles of school organization are the "humanization of the school system and of relations among the personnel of the school" and the "motivation, stimulus, and direction of the creative power of each member of the school community, so that education would become an active process [and] concerned with investigation, discovery, and experimentation," and the school personnel would become "spontaneous, original and able to communicate" innovative practices.[18]

The accent is on creativity in all units of the school system, from the smallest (including the individual) to the most complex. Creativity is possible when everyone has an open, unprejudiced mind and when both educators and students divest themselves from stereotyped thinking so that they can seek the new by the processes of induction and discovery.

In accordance with these "imperatives," innovations will bring about "greater efficiency in educational work" if they are derived from the formation in each school of an educational community embracing teachers, administrators, pupils, parents, and community representatives. Teachers should receive the kind of inservice education and encouragement that would enable them to participate fully as a team in preparing courses of study and in school activities. The school should project itself into the local community and integrate educational work with its environment through frequent contacts and close collaboration with parents, visitation, excursions, and the like. Moreover, the school should organize cultural activities in behalf of the people of its

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[17] Ibid., p. 144.
[18] Ibid., pp. 144–45.

community. Apart from the functions of personalizing and individualizing instruction, the school should ensure "rational utilization of scholastic time and maximum performance through new schemes of schedules, adaptation of space, different groups (small, conference, and large); the use and incorporation of technology and the new learning media." [19]

COMMITMENT TO FLEXIBILITY, INNOVATION, AND CREATIVITY

A close study of these important guidelines should disclose a deep commitment on the part of the *Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia* to the principles of flexibility, change, cooperation, individualization, initiative, and creativity. These are repeated in various contexts throughout the text. During the past decades at least, in education as in several other respects, change toward modernization in Spain was not apparent to international observers. There seems little reason to doubt the sincerity and determination of the Spanish Government to bring about a basic reform on all educational levels. Once the door is opened to educational reform, it is not possible to predict what forces might be set into motion. The stress on religious education, to take a salient example, continues right through the reform. With the various tensions and strains within the Catholic Church, both in Spain and elsewhere, it remains to be seen if this traditional and fundamental area of learning in Spain may not undergo some form of modification as a result of the constant emphasis on flexibility, review, evaluation, innovation, experimentation, and creativity. The skeptic might look upon these as slogans, but it cannot be denied that there exists a possibility that, because of the stress on modernization, even the core of the *Tres Marías* (the three traditional requirements—religion, citizenship, and sports) might be modified, perhaps in a basic way.

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[19] Ibid., p. 145.

8. Interpretation

The study of a national system of education or any aspect of it, if it is to have maximum value, must necessarily be based upon objective observation and careful analysis of the primary documentary source materials, official as well as nongovernmental. In addition, there should be examination and interpretation of the educational question within the framework of concentric contexts—historical, cultural, political, economic, social, and the like. It is also considerably helpful, and perhaps even indispensable, to consider the particular education system or issue with reference to comparable or contrasting situations in one or more additional countries. Such a procedure adds needed perspective in several dimensions and reduces the probability of distortion.

In the present study, the new Spanish educational reform has been subjected to scrutiny more or less in accordance with such a procedure. A sketch of the historical background, of the more recent past, and of the period immediately before the *reforma educativa* were followed by analysis of the blueprint, of the consequent legislation, and of the early steps in effectuating the new reform. Reference was made, as appropriate, to the recent experience of other nations in Europe, comparable or otherwise. It is clear that Spain has embarked on a new course in education and culture, one which was not precisely predictable on the basis of the more recent history of the country. As the new reform is appraised by observers from the outside, there should be appreciation of the fact that the educational reform of 1969–70 represents a radical departure in policy by the Government of Spain. On the basis of the Spanish stereotype, immutability was as characteristic of Iberia as firmness is of the Rock of Gibraltar.

THE PARALLEL ECONOMIC REFORM

Some illumination might be obtained by considering other aspects of Spanish life—the political economy, for example. A careful student of this subject has noted that, from 1957 to 1967, "Spain undertook a rather thoroughgoing transformation of its political economic system . . . [and] launched a massive retooling of its approach to economic affairs, along lines more compatible with the neo-Keynsian economic principles then coming into vogue throughout the Western world." [1]

[1] Charles W. Anderson. *The Political Economy of Modern Spain: Policy-Making in an Authoritarian System*. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1970. pp. xii–xiii.

The outcome of this pervasive reform was that "during the decade 1957-67, the Spanish economy grew at an annual average rate of 9 percent, one of the highest in the Western world" and that the international community recognized the "Spanish economic miracle" as comparable to that of the Federal Republic of Germany in the 1950's.[2] No longer was Spain to be regarded as an underdeveloped nation, inasmuch as it had acquired the capability of steady economic growth. During 1957–67, moreover, "Spain's approach to the government's economic role was drastically restructured by adopting first, in 1959, a stabilization program linked to a strategy of economic liberalization, and then, in 1963, a design for growth based on national economic planning." [3]

One might perceive some parallels between the genesis in Spain of awareness of the need for reform in the economy on the one hand and in the educational system on the other. Without making more of this hypothesis than it is worth, it is possible to point to the central importance of planning in both reforms and to the effort at keeping in step with the rest of Western Europe. Again, in both instances, the experience of other areas was drawn upon by key persons. It is particularly noteworthy that a person of the international background of Ricardo Diez Hochleitner in both education and economics was selected by the Spanish Government to spearhead the new reform in education.

EDUCATIONAL INNOVATIONS

The I.C.E.

In looking at the progress of the educational reform as a whole, it is appropriate to highlight some of the more striking aspects. One important innovation is the *Instituto de Ciencias de la Educación* (I.C.E.). The I.C.E., designed as a unit, is concerned with preparing, improving, and reeducating teachers on all levels, including higher education; carrying on theoretical and practical activities in educational research; and providing professional advice on all types of pedagogical problems. Such a unit, it can be readily understood, must be fundamental to any program of educational change. Its potential for practical effectiveness lies in the fact that it is connected closely with the university and other higher educational institutions. There are 15 I.C.E.'s in all, and they are spaced throughout the various regions of Spain in universities at Madrid, Bilbao, Barcelona, Santiago, Seville, Salamanca, Valladolid, and Granada. They are under the direction of experienced educators who also continue to serve the universities as professors engaged in instruction and research. Thus, the I.C.E. of the University of Madrid is directed by the internationally known educational scholar, Prof. Víctor Garciá Hoz.

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[2] Ibid., p. xiii.
[3] Ibid., p. 5.

The C.E.N.I.D.E.

The work of all the I.C.E.'s is coordinated by another organization formed to further the reform: the *Centro Nacional de Investigaciones para el Desarrollo de la Educación* (C.E.N.I.D.E.). This unit consists of the directors of the I.C.E.'s, representatives of the Ministry of Education and Science, and various other specialists. It is not intended as the top of a hierarchy, but rather as a center for training teacher-trainers and as a review body for research plans. "It functions as a secretariat, at the service of its 'clients' and according to the ideas of its 'clients.' "[4] Obviously, some such organization is desirable from the standpoint of avoiding costly duplication of effort. The C.E.N.I.D.E.'s headquarters, located in a rural setting and against a mountainous backdrop, just off the campus of the University of Madrid, has the provisions, plans, and equipment for a modern, sophisticated system of educational research. The seminars, which also include contributions by foreign specialists, and the various publications help in the training process and in the dissemination of research results and suggestions.[5]

The up-to-dateness of the seminars and research programs at the C.E.N.I.D.E. may be noted from their subject matter in 1970 and 1971: Group dynamics, microteaching, programed teaching, inquiry techniques, television, team teaching, computer-assisted instruction, environmental studies, and others.[6] The combined efforts of the I.C.E.'s and the C.E.N.I.D.E. represent the hope of the Spanish educational authorities for successful implementation of the principles and practices of the new educational reform. In this way, too, they believe that they will find themselves in the mainstream of contemporary education in advanced European and Western Hemisphere countries.

The Planning Model

Another indication of the policy of innovation with regard to the reform is the emphasis on quantitative aspects of educational planning. Early in 1970, the Ministry of Education and Science issued a model of educational development based on the macroeconomic model of UNESCO.[7] The Ministry, through this device, has been able to estimate educational growth in relation to cost and to determine future needs in teacher manpower and in other essential respects. The regular application of the mathematical model would make it possible for

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[4] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *The Plan for the Use of Computers in the Education of Teachers.* Madrid: The Ministry, 1971. p. 23.

[5] Visit, inspection, and conferences at the *Centro Nacional de Investigaciones para el Desarrollo de la Educación.* Madrid, Jan. 12, 1971.

[6] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *The Plan for the Use of Computers in the Education of Teachers.* Op. cit., pp. 25–32.

[7] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Report: Educational Reform in Spain.* Madrid. The Ministry, 1971. p. 22.

the Ministry to plan *una campaña propagandistica* to prevent forecasted shortages in any professional field by encouraging greater enrollments of students.[8] Planning has been conducted in 1970 and 1971 not only on a national basis, but also on regional and provincial levels (e.g., Galicia and the Canary Islands). The principle of flexibility also pertains to planning, with the provision of studies to revise the model as a result of experience with it, as well as in consequence of the application of newer analytical concepts.

Reorganization of the Ministry

Another matter of fundamental significance in relation to the new educational reform is the reorganization of the *Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia*. This was enacted by the decree of January 28, 1971,[9] and was supplemented by the order of July 7, 1971.[10] The new administrative setup is composed of the Minister at the top, advised by an executive council and a professional office (*Gabinete Técnico del Ministro*). Next in line is the subsecretariat, which serves as the coordinator of seven major divisions: The Directorates General of Educational Planning, Professional Training and Educational Extension, Programing and Investment, Universities and Research, Fine Arts, Archives and Libraries, and Personnel. Also functioning within the Subsecretariat is the General Technical Secretariat, which is concerned with publications, documentation, international relations, and other duties. The main difference between the new and the old Ministry lies in the substitution of offices of educational planning, professional training, and programing for the more conventional divisions of elementary, secondary, and vocational and technical education.[11]

In addition, the provincial administration of education has been reorganized in accordance with the principle of decentralization. Decisionmaking, once within the power of the central administration divisions, has been delegated by reform legislation to Provincial delegations. These bodies have the responsibility of administering all phases of the provincial school systems.

> The new structure laid down by the Decree will allow [the authorities] to approach educational administration with a complete picture of provincial . . . [needs], facilitating a more agile management by decentralizing or delegating the competences up to now held by the central departments of the Ministry.

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[8] Spain. Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Modelo español de desarrollo educativo*. Madrid: The Ministry, 1970. p. 31.

[9] The full text of this decree, "Decreto 147/1971, de 28 de enero, por el que se reorganizada el Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia," appears in: Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Nueva estructura*. Madrid: The Ministry, 1971. pp. 5-26.

[10] "Orden de 7 de julio por la que se desarrolla el Decreto 147/1971, de 28 de enero, que reorganizó el Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia," *Boletín Oficial del Estado*. Número 166, July 13, 1971, pp. 11521–26.

[11] See Ellen M. Doherty and George A. Male. *Education in Spain: Educational Data*. U.S. Office of Education (OE–14034–79). Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966. pp. 2–3.

> Further, a wide channel is open for the participation of the community in the educational reform through the Provincial Educational Boards and through the University District Board.[12]

The new organization chart (chart 3 on p. 40–41) shows a direct line between the Provincial delegations and the subsecretariat, so that the Directions General are bypassed. The question is to what extent there is decentralization in the new administrative system. It is clearer that a rearrangement has taken place, and the central Ministry still exercises some direction at least over the provincial school systems. This would seem to be logical in view of the emphasis on national reform. The Provinces could be given latitude, but they would be required to cooperate toward advancing the objectives and main provisions of the new system of Spanish education.

Growing International Relations in Education

The growth of educational relations between Spain and other countries is yet another feature of the new reform. The aid of UNESCO and the O.E.C.D. helped in the planning and early stages of the educational changes. A credit agreement on June 30, 1970, between the Spanish Government and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development provided for joint financing of 19 elementary schools, 20 secondary schools, eight I.C.E.'s, the purchase of research equipment at the C.E.N.I.D.E., and professional aid for application of the reform. The estimated cost totaled $24 million; $12 million was provided at the beginning of 1971 in the form of a 20-year loan, with the first payment due in 1976.[13]

Also helpful was the $400,000 grant from the Ford Foundation for scholarships to enable Spanish educators to study in the United States and in Europe, and for engaging foreign consultants for specific tasks on a short-term basis. The immediate beneficiaries of this grant were the C.E.N.I.D.E. and the I.C.E.'s, since the focus of the Foundation's interest was innovation in teacher education and research.[14] The U.S. Government (under the Agreement of Friendship and Cooperation of August 6, 1970) supported a university administrator training program and a project to instruct Spanish teachers in the teaching of English. These contributions to the Spanish educational reform and the increasing exchanges of visits and materials between Spanish and foreign educators promised to reduce the virtual isolation of the Spanish educational system during previous periods.

In the historical portion of this essay, the point was made that for many centuries Spain had participated in international education activities. The past several decades have been marked by enrollment of students from various countries, including the United States. Foreign

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[12] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Report: Educational Reform in Spain.* Op. cit., p. 31.
[13] Ibid., p. 32.
[14] Ibid.

students may attend a Spanish university for a year and then continue their studies toward a degree at their own institution. In addition, there are special courses for foreigners (*cursos para extranjeros*) during the summer in Hispanic studies—language, literature, history, and culture.[15] These courses have been of great benefit to teachers of various subjects, particularly teachers of the Spanish language and literature.

International exchange of students and faculty is a practice common to many countries. What is more peculiar to Spain is the education of Spanish workers and their families who migrate, frequently on a temporary basis, to other countries in search of better economic opportunities. "In different surroundings, where a different language is spoken, where there are different ways of life, the emmigrant [sic] feels uprooted and encounters serious problems of adaptation." [16] As of 1969, the Ministry of Education and Science provided 176 elementary schools, five centers of secondary education (Lisbon, Paris, Tangier, Casablanca, Andorra), and two adult cultural centers. In addition, there were provisions for secondary school classes in Germany, Belgium, Canada, France, Italy, Switzerland, and the Netherlands, where Spaniards can obtain a *bachillerato* after working hours on the basis of studying with the aid of radio programs, tapes, and other educational materials.[17] Children, too, are enabled to study toward the *bachillerato* under similar programs. All these activities are the concern of the Ministry of Education and Science, which seeks ". . . to adequately take care of the educational needs of Spanish residents abroad, to maintain and extend cultural links in countries that are related to Spain for reasons of history or a common langauge, and in other parts of the world along the traditional line of Spain of international cooperation and understanding." [18] The new reform, no doubt, will have an impact on Spain's role in international education. Interestingly, the documentary materials do not disclose that closer educational relations are a major concern in the reform.

REACTION OF THE SPANISH PEOPLE

From all indications, Spain has embarked upon a policy of modernization of its educational structure, functions, and services to its people. Such a fundamental break with the past, and the speed and detail with which the new reform is being put into operation necessarily raise a number of questions. One involves the matter of finance. It is obvious that change—any change—means a larger expenditure of funds than heretofore. Even with some aid from international sources, the Spanish Government and the people would have to make a deliberate effort to

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[15] Doherty and Male. *Education in Spain: Educational Data.* Op. cit., pp. 29–30.

[16] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Education in Spain: Bases for an Education Policy*, Madrid: The Ministry, 1969. (Mimeographed.) p. 192.

[17] Ibid., p. 194.

[18] Ibid., p. 195.

keep the required funds flowing at a regular rate to make the 10-year reform a reality. More and more buildings, additional instructional materials, better equipped libraries and laboratories, higher salaries, more teachers—all these consume considerable cash. With the elevation of the economic level of Spain in the 1960's and with a constant campaign of enlightenment by the Government, it is likely that the citizens would give their support to the new educational setup. The average citizen, of course, would have to be convinced that the reform would increase his children's opportunities for economic and social betterment. That there is some skepticism is evident from frequent interviews and discussions with various types of persons with different backgrounds in education and culture. Perhaps, frequent evidence of actual change in line with the results of research and testing—the principle of continuous review and assessment, as outlined in the new education law—would persuade the public to part with a greater portion of its purse toward the realization of the reform's objectives.

The course of true educational reform does not run smooth in any country, except possibly in those which are tightly controlled. The controls in Spain are by no means complete, and Spanish people have shown dissent by demonstrations and strikes in industry and in universities. Criticism has been expressed by various persons with regard to particular aspects of the educational reform. In some instances, such reactions have helped the authorities to rethink and refine their efforts. It is reasonable to expect that suggestions would be welcome and receive consideration. However, it is not at all certain that sweeping critiques would be appreciated by the educational authorities, doubtless not now that the reform is well under way.

Outside of printed reactions to the *Libro Blanco,* it has not been possible to locate a wide sampling of critical statements in print regarding the reform. One important early appraisal was made by Prof. Víctor García Hoz, who has been mentioned in several connections on previous pages. Prof. García Hoz spoke with the assurance of academic authority, professional experience, and an established reputation on both sides of the Atlantic. He expressed his appreciation of many changes in the new educational scheme, such as the possibility of communication among the parts of the educational system. To him, "the idea of unity is not exactly the same as uniformity." [19] He feared that the bewildering explosion of learning might result in a bewildering and disintegrating array of curricula." [20] Moreover, he regarded the new law's abolition of the elementary school principalship as "serious defect" (*grave fallo*) in that it does away, "with one stroke of the pen," with the professional experience of specially trained personnel and deprives them of a chance for promotion.[21] He saw "serious difficulties" in the evaluation of pupils who progress on the basis of a

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[19] Víctor García Hoz, "Ante la nueva Ley de educación," *Revista Española de Pedagogía,* XXVIII October-December 1970, p. 396.

[20] Ibid., p. 397.

[21] Ibid.

policy of *promoción automática,* which he characterized as "a most revolutionary" provision.[22]

Under a subheading, "The Dangers of the Law," Prof. García Hoz warned of the possibility of new problems not foreseen by the central Government. He warned that the belief was spreading that the entire educational reform will turn out to be "a change of names." [23] Moreover, in his judgment, "the most serious political danger was not the scarcity of economic means," which was a serious difficulty in itself, but rather dispensing with "the experienced institutions and individuals indispensable to the progress of the reform." [24]

Still another danger is that which is typical of the times—hurry. García Hoz was aware of the delicate position of the political leadership and that educational reform was *urgente,* but he wished to steer clear of extremes, whether of speed or of delay. He stressed that "it is neither possible to improvise nor to realize hastily the preparation of the factors, particularly those affecting personnel, which are necessary so that the educational reform would become a fact." [25] In his concluding paragraph, taking one risk with another, Prof. García Hoz expressed his conviction as to the value of the reform, because it offers the possibility of a "clear advance in the efficacy of the Spanish educational system." [26]

No doubt, such critical comment was received in the spirit in which it was presented. The author of these criticisms has been working with the reform in a key position and has pointed with pride to the achievement of some of the innovations introduced by the law of August 4, 1970. [27]

The appraisal by García Hoz was the only overall critique that has come to light. Perhaps it is too early in the history of the reform to expect extended evaluation of the changes in Spanish education. It is possible that, in the years to come, the cumulative experience will yield insights toward improving the reform. This is surely what the sponsors of the reform would like to see happen.

EVALUATION

The previous pages have pointed out the persistence of some educational problems and issues in Spain. Illiteracy is a traditional problem, and the reform will not be fully effectual if it does not make a substantial dent in this domain of ignorance within a reasonable period of time. A consistent campaign along the lines of *educación permanente* might go a long way toward achieving a high degree of national liter-

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[22] Ibid., p. 398.
[23] Ibid., p. 399.
[24] Ibid., p. 400.
[25] Ibid.
[26] Ibid., p. 401.
[27] Ibid.

acy. With an increasing level of educational efficiency and retention of young people in educational institutions, the problem might disappear as older persons pass from the scene.

The emphasis on educational change and the desire for professional and public acceptance and cooperation suggest a number of questions. To what extent has the reform movement convinced the university professoriate, the subject matter specialists, and other educational traditionalists? Spain, as have many other countries, has had difficulties with student dissent at the University of Madrid, the University of Barcelona, and other institutions of higher learning. There is apparently no expectation that professors would oppose openly the progress of the reform. Yet, because the professor is "one who thinks otherwise," it is hard to conceive that devotion to tradition would vanish overnight, as it were. Perhaps a healthy attitude of skepticism on the part of the scholars, coupled with the raising of pertinent questions as the reform develops, would keep the modernizers on their toes and the result might be a more effective and reasonably balanced system of education for the Spanish people.

There is also the question of the future of the political way of life in Spain, which has been an organic state for close to four decades. Analysts of the Spanish political situation have termed it authoritarian rather than totalitarian; that is to say, the central governmental control under the former condition is not all-embracing. "The role of party and ideology was never as central in Spain as in Germany, Italy, or most communist countries." [28] The presence of the Falangist Party (*Movimiento*) is visible in the schools and ministerial offices not so much in the ubiquity of Francisco Franco's photograph, but rather in that of José Antonio Primo de Rivera, founder of the Falange and of the country's political ideology. With creativity, innovation, and flexibility the new watchwords of the Spanish educational system, might there not be a possibility of an awakening demand for a democratic society along the lines of other West European countries? Will the Catholic Church agree to any reduction of influence on the role of religion in education? The problem for the Church is reflected in the results of a recent study undertaken by the Bishops' Commission for the Doctrine of the Faith which revealed "a decline in religious practice and a greater concern for the problems of justice." [29] The implications for Church policy with regard to education will be regarded with great interest by those who are charged with advancing the reform. Time will tell whether the professed downgrading of religious education—which does not seem to be borne out in the documents—is actual or apparent.

What is the ultimate objective of the new educational reform in relation to the fundamental aims of the state? Will there be a withering away of authoritarianism as the *Caudillo* advances beyond his four

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[28] Charles W. Anderson. Op. cit., p. 4.

[29] "Entre los Españoles se registra un descenso en la práctica religiosa y una mayor preocupación por los problemas de justicia," *ABC* (Madrid), Jan. 4, 1971, p. 27.

score years (1972)? These are some of the questions which occur to outside observers.

Be that as it may, changes are taking place in Spanish education and society. Spain no longer has, if it ever had, the image of a monolith in international circles. It is increasing its interest in international developments in education and science and probably in other areas as well. The end product of the educational reform after 10 years is hard to foresee. The final relation of the new system to government remains, at this time, a matter of doubt. What is certain, however, is that the latter-day prophet, Arnold Toynbee, is off the target when he asserts that "present-day Spain" has petrified itself "into a pillar of salt."[30] The pillar of salt has become a source of life and renewal.

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[30] Arnold Toynbee. "For Britain, It's Now or Never," *Philadelphia Inquirer* and *Washington Post*, July 25, 1971.

Appendixes

Appendix A. Glossary of Educational Terms

Alumno—Pupil, student.
Analfabetismo—Illiteracy.
Bachiller—Secondary school certificate.
Bachillerato unificado y polivalente—Unified, multipurpose secondary-school course.
Calendario—Time table.
Catedrático—University professor.
Centro docente—An educational institution, a school.
Colegio mayor—Student residence hall in a university.
Curso de orientación universitario—A 1-year course of orientation required for university entrance.
Curso para extranjeros—A course for foreigners.
Curso preuniversitario—A 1-year course, following the *bachillerato*, prerequisite for university entrance.
Desconcentración—Decentralization.
Distritos universitarios—University districts.
Doctorado—An earned doctorate.
Educación general básica—An 8-year period of basic elementary education.
Educación permanente—Adult education.
Educación preescolar—Preschool education.
Enseñanza media—Secondary education.
Enseñanza primaria—Elementary education.
Enseñanza superior—Higher education.
Enseñanza técnica de grado media—Secondary technical education.
Enseñanza técnica superior—Higher technical education.
Escuela de magisterio—Normal school for elementary school teachers.
Escuela de párvulos—Kindergarten.
Escuela maternal—Nursery school.
Escuela nacional—A state or government school.
Facultad—Faculty (college in a university).
Formación professional—Vocational training.
Investigación educativa—Educational research.
Licenciado—First university degree.
Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia—Ministry of Education and Science.
Oposiciones—Competitive examination for teaching positions.
Perito—Expert or technician. Title obtained after graduation from a vocational school.
Profesor—Designation for teacher.
Título—Degree, diploma, certificate, or title.
Universidad autónoma—Autonomous university with respect to function and finance.
Universidad laboral—Secondary vocational school under the Ministry of Labor.

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Appendix C. Introduction to the *Libro Blanco*[1]

I

The world is advancing toward new forms that not even the most intrepid and clever politicians have been able to predict exactly. Ideas and facts are being inspected, critically analyzed, and, occasionally, revised. Not even educational systems are escaping this universal revisionism, nor sociological, economic nor political ideas, nor the application of ethic or religious principles; and we should not feel amazed to find that before this changing horizon an atmosphere of fear and despair is created among men. However, the extension of culture among Spaniards is the wonderful accomplishment that, will reach all corners of the country. The challenge of our time is to teach and train, and we are charged with this undertaking expectant of the most evident results.

I have thought it a duty to recall the above words of the Chief of State, as they synthesize the educational policy the Government is trying to carry out and clearly call on everyone's conscience to give the greatest effectiveness possible to the human right to an education, encouraging equality of opportunity for all Spaniards in obtaining it, and establishing the best balance between the needs of a rapidly progressing society and the direction and effectiveness of the national educational system. This new educational policy and the reform suggested, will give the future an integral reform of society and its old adventures, much in the same way that a silent and peaceful revolution would, but it will be tremendously more effective and profound than any other in achieving a more just society.

II

The basic ideas enclosed in this book, submitted to the general consideration of the country are not ideas without alternatives. The attempt is more to describe a panorama of serious problems and to suggest the appropriate solutions. However, the Ministry is already prepared, with the indispensable organic mechanism, to receive, compare and accept whatever constructive criticism may arise, and include it in the legislative proposal to be drawn up.

I should like to point out that the ideas presented in this book are the result of teamwork, in which an attempt has been made to combine realism and innovation, consideration of the premises and conditioning of our educational and social peculiarities and the tendencies and advances of contemporary thought in the field of education. Without this background study in the drawing up of the bases, real

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[1] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Education in Spain: Bases for an Education Policy*. Madrid: The Ministry [1969]. p. i–vii (Mimeographed.)

participation would not be possible later on. For this reason, it is not a case of imposing these ideas, but of throwing them to the critical debate of public opinion. I therefore reject the easy and foreseeable objection that this outline has not been produced with real, ample participation on the part of everyone. It is necessary to discuss such ideas—and the more this is done, the more we can expect from the task we have set ourselves, but this would be impossible if we start from zero, without this necessary debate.

III

Whoever examines the book carefully will observe a disproportion between the number of pages of the first part—of a principally critical nature—and that of the second, in which the suggested solutions are outlined. The first and second parts of this book, however, are intimately connected, since to find a defect is practically the same as discovering a way to correct it. This excuses the greater length of the first part in comparison to the briefness of the second. In the latter, we have preferred to show the general lines of a possible reform without analyzing the details. It is true that many of these have been formulated by consulting teams of experts, but I feel that it would have been a mistake to include all the details in this publication. I think that the important thing, in a logical order of action, is to build the foundation that is to support the building, without wasting discussion or public opinion in the isolated analysis of small aspects. Error in educational reforms usually comes about through the examination of the detail or through responding to a problem in an isolated or personal way. With respect to the very critical character of the first part, I am pleased to explain beforehand. It is obvious that the work done by the Spanish State in the educational field in the last thirty years has been quite considerable. I should like to express my admiration and respect for the part in this my predecessors in this Ministry took. However, it is also clear that the social and economic expansion of the last decade has far outreached previous expectations. It is therefore necessary to try now to recover the rythm [sic] so that new gaps are not produced in the near future, by setting up a system that is flexible enough to correct itself. On the other hand, this book is not an examination of the past—but of the future, and for this reason careful scrutiny of present defects is necessary.

IV

The educational reform proposed is tremendously ambicious [sic], although the limits of real possibilities will make its adoption gradual. However, the technical character of the book and the fact that it considers the entire educational system might diminish the reader's interest if he is looking for the answers to partial questions or a concrete detail of the educational level in which he personally finds himself. I would suggest, to understand the meaning of the reform and its present and future scope, careful reading of the entire book. Only by doing this will the reader find the answer to the point that, whatever the reasons, interests him most.

Perhaps an example will make the above clear. The university and student demands have captured the attention of the general public, since they are "news" and therefore appear in the information media which, to a considerable degree, control public opinion at the present time. I dare say that this hides the roots of many of the evils that can be seen at the university, but *these can be found, to a great extent, in the lower educational levels.* These include the classism of the university, the dogmatic sense of learning, the attitude of intellectual passivity to which the student is submitted, directed only toward passing memorization examinations.

The desire for a degree and so many other defects create problems that are impossible to analyze and solve in an isolated way. To illustrate this, we might say that the classism of the Spanish university is the result of the differentiated structure in intermediate education. If the reform is not made here, the defect in the university cannot be avoided. It is, then, a defect *of* our university, but it cannot be corrected only *in* the university.

I insist once again, then, that the possible solutions for each one of the innumberable [sic] problems related to education are only reasonable when they are applied within the total context, since the relations between the different educational levels often cause these problems. Without a complete examination, any attempted reform would be a partial solution. For this reasen, to undertake, in an isolated way, the reform of the university, for example, even though it were a very thorough reform, would be very short term. It would draw enthusiastic support from those sectors given to quick, superficial criticism. It would be quite spectacular, politically speaking. But in the long run the positive appearances would be lost in nothing when attacked by structural defects covering the entire educational system.

I should add, finally, with respect to the above, that I was guilty of this same error of perspective when I first took office in this Ministry. My professional life as "catedrático" of a university immersed in student agitation, my disatisfaction with part of its factulty, etc., made me say, more or less, when I took office, that university problems would receive my greatest attention, since those of the other educational levels were already diagnosed and their solutions found. The only thing left was to intensify their application and find the necessary funds. Shortly after taking charge of the Department, with a more complete and realistic view of the defects of our educational system, trying to see the forest in spite of the trees, I could see my initial error, which I proclaimed in that solemn moment. I wish to repeat this now, publicly, for honesty's sake and especially to get rid of any attitude which, like the current of a river, might make us unchangeable in our mistakes. I also hope that this personal self-criticism will legalize my criticism of observed deficiencies. The constant search for truth is the only thing that matters and I think that great sectors of the country agree with this, in spite of apparent or circumstantial discrepancies.

V

This book is an act of faith in Spain's future as well as in the creative imagination and capacity for change of Spaniards. Education is not only the business of the government, of a regime or of the men of a given period: the guarantee of survival and development of society, education is the product of the effort of all those in the past, and belongs to the future as much as, if not more than, to the present.

To try to summarize the fundamental ideas of the reform suggested in this book, for those who read only the first and last pages, would be to place its intention in peril. The list of the Government's ambitions for the educational sector is very long: above all, to prepare young people for responsibly exercising freedom, to encourage social integration and national comprehension, and to encourage greater social mobility. But besides all this, to make the educational process a continuous system, with unity and interrelation of its structure, and to offer the opportunity of permanent education throughout men's and women's lives. All this requires the substantial improvement in the effectiveness of the educational system, in numbers as well as in quality on all its levels, through an ambitious program of research to permit, among other things, the introduction of new methods and modern means of education. This effort should be accompanied by intense student promotion throughout the educational period.

Along with the brief outline of the general plan proposed, it is necessary to add

such significant proposed reforms as the following: basic general education, free and obligatory until fourteen years of age; elimination of rural-urban inequality in educational opportunities; intensive and accelerated professional training for all Spaniards before taking a job; unified and polyvalent education in the bachillerato, which should become free and extended to everyone with the necessary intellectual ability; entrance to the university without discrimination, with three study cycles after a year of orientation; university autonomy and the creation of new universities; new inter-Faculty "careers" to meet the need for new professions at the intermediate level; the creation of a true university teaching "career" on different levels and with different duties; etc.

VI

These and so many other problems to be solved without delay are only an incomplete enumeration of the facets of the total reform proposed. Where there's a will there's a way. In this way, with the greatest hopes and expectancy, we will continue one of the most satisfying undertakings: to give education to all our people. To open the doors of education to all those—whether or not they can afford it—with the ability necessary for it; to fulfill in this way one of the most just postulates of our Fundamental Laws. The educational reform, I repeat, is, actually, a silent and peaceful revolution, but the most effective and profound in achieving a more just society and an increasingly more human life, in the widest sense of the word.

José Luis Villar Palasí
Minister of Education and Science

Appendix D. Extracts from the Education Reform Law of 1970

Articles of the General Education and Education Reform Financing Law

TITLE PRELIMINARY

Article 1

Educational goals at all levels and all types are:

1. Integral and harmonious human and personality development of the individual to prepare him to responsibly exercise his liberty inspired by a Christian approach to life and national traditions and culture; social development and formation of a community spirit; all in accordance with the Principles of the National Movement (political) and Laws of the Land.

2. The development of work and study habits and professional training so the individual may contribute to the social, cultural, scientific and economic development of the nation.

3. Integration of regional characteristics which enrich Spanish culture to foster a spirit of tolerance and international understanding.

Article 2

1. In accordance with the 9th Principle of the Principles of the National Movement Law and article 5 of the Spanish Bill of Rights, every Spaniard has the right, and the Government has the responsibility to provide, to a general education and professional training which, in accordance with Article 1[1] here, will prepare him to perform a task useful both to the society and to himself.

2. Basic General Education will be compulsory and free for all Spaniards. Those who do not pursue higher education will also receive free compulsory Grade I professional training.

Once the aforementioned goals are met, the Government will extend free education through high school.

Foreign residents in Spain will also have a right to the free Basic General Education and Grade I professional training.

3. So that Spanish students may exercise their rights to further education, beyond the compulsory education in accordance with the Principle of Equal Opportunity, as a function of their intellectual capacity, aptitude, and personal progress, for those students lacking the necessary financial means, the Government will provide aid, subsidies, and loans.

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[1] Spain, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. *Ley 14/1970, de 4 de agosto, General de Educación y Financiamiento de la Reforma Educativa.* Madrid: Imprenta Nacional del Boletín Oficial del Estado, 1970.

4. In order to carry out the goals established by this Law, the necessary loans are contrived herein, including those set forth in the Further Provisions, and the funds necessary to finance them will be obtained.

5. There will be sanctions against anyone who does not comply with or creates problems in complying with compulsory education.

Article 3

1. As education is a fundamental public service, educational institutions, teachers and students must cooperate by dedicating themselves to perfect and improve their corresponding activities in accordance with the roles they are appointed by this Law and their own Statutes.

2. The teaching profession requires persons with relevant human, pedagogical, and professional qualities. The Government will take any steps necessary to see to it that teacher training and entering into the profession is such that teachers will enjoy a position in Spanish society corresponding to their function.

3. To study is the social duty of students. The Government values study as a type of work and will protect it by force of law, making it compatible with fulfilling all other duties.

Article 4

Without infringing on the constitutional law of the Cortes (Parliament) articles 10, 1 and 12, in matters of education it will be up to the Government to:

a) Determine educational policy for all levels and types of education.

b) Plan programs according to needs and available resources.

c) Establish and close down Government educational institutions; give the Cortes (Parliament) the responsibility to propose laws authorizing setting up or closing Universities as well as Schools and Technological Institutes when located in a city other than the city where the main campus is located.

d) Stimulate and protect free initiative in fulfilling education goals in the society, and to eliminate obstacles impeding or raising difficulties such a non-educational influences which harm training and education.

e) Regulate all schooling and grant or validate the corresponding diplomas and degrees.

f) Supervise all Government and private educational institutions.

g) Adopt any measures necessary for carrying out the articles of this Law.

Article 5

1. Public and private parties and individuals may promote and maintain educational Institutions in accordance with the provisions of this Law.

2. A principle and inalienable right and duty of the family is to educate its children. The family is legally required to comply with the provisions for compulsory education, help their children take advantage of opportunities for a higher education, and cooperate with the educational Institutions.

3. The parents, or legal guardians of minors have the right to chose the legally established education Institution where the minor will study, and have the right to a periodic report on the essential aspects of the educational process.

4. Family education programs will be developed to provide parents and guardians, with information and technical knowledge related to the family's educational function and duty to cooperate with educational Institutions.

5. Establishment of Parent-Teacher Associations for educational Institution, communities, areas and provinces will be stimulated and channels provided for parents to participate in the education of their children.

Article 6

1. The Government recognized and guarantees the Catholic Church's rights in education, in accordance with the agreements between both powers.

2. In accordance with the provisions of article 6 of the Spanish Bill of Rights, the Catholic Church is guaranteed the right to spiritual and moral action and religious education in Government as well as non-Government educational Institutions.

3. In any case, the Law regulating religious liberty as a civil right will prevail.

Article 7

1. The cost of higher education at Government education Institutions will not exceed real costs per student. The Government will set fees within these limits. Fees might vary in accordance with criteria such as the student's output or economic circumstances.

2. Non-Government educational Institutions coming under article 96, at tuition-required levels, will fix prices in accordance with real costs per student and aid received from public and private organizations, such as tax exemptions or privileges.

3. All Other Institutions will submit their tuition requirements to the Ministry of Science and Education for approval before they may be put into effect.

Article 8

In accordance with article 53 of the Government Organic Law, at least annually and as often as suitable, the Government will inform the Cortes (Parliament) of the application of the present Law and results obtained and will propose any changes deemed necessary for fulfilling its goals.

TITLE I

Educational system

SECTION I

General Provisions

Article 9

1. The educational system will assure the unified and continuous educational process throughout a man's life in order to meet the permanent educational requirements of modern society.

2. The educational system will be developed in accordance with the following principles:

a) Educational levels, programs and types will be arranged keeping in mind the requirements for a solid general education and the needs in relation to the employment structure.

b) A criterion [sic.] for their development will be unity and interrelationship. The educational system will have a common basis for all levels, programs and types with special bases for particular concrete cases.

c) The connection and interrelationship of the levels, programs and types of Education will allow movement from one to another and the necessary vocational readjustments. Thus, persons who for one reason or another have had to drop their studies, may return to them at a later date.

d) The educational methods at each level will be adapted to the social development of the students.

3. A system for periodic revision and up-dating of educational plans and programs will be established so that they might be perfected and adapted to new needs. These changes should not be so frequent as to upset the stability of the system.

4. Educational and professional orientation should be a service at all points in the educational system in order to channel the student's capabilities, aptitudes and vocation and aid him in making rational and responsible choices.

Article 10

1. The school-year will be the same nation-wide though adapted to regional differences, with a minimum of 220 school days every school year, without infringing on make-up courses provided for in article 19, paragraph 3.

2. School days (hours) at the various levels and programs will be established in a set of rules.

Article 11

1. The value of educational output will take into account both the student's and the Institutions' output.

2. The student's performance will be evaluated at the end of each course or level of education with a system of examinations which will judge the overall development of the student and his capabilities for further education.

3. There will be a confidential file kept of each student's mental level, aptitudes and interests, personality traits, environment, family physical condition and other circumstances deemed pertinent for his education and orientation. The parents are required to help make up this file. An up-date résumé of this file should be included in the records of each student when he advances from one educational level to another.

4. The grading at the end of each school year will primarily be based on scores on tests throughout the year. The grading will be positive or negative, and this will be thought out carefully on the assumption that generally it will be positive.

5. Institutions will be judged basically on: the average performance of their students academically and in their professional lives; the degrees held by their teachers; the student-teacher ratio; the availability and use of modern teaching methods and aids; educational, cultural, and sports plant and activities; the number and importance of courses (subject matter) available; pedagogical and professional orientation services and experience and training of the Institutions administrators as well as their relations with the students' families and the community at large.

Article 12

1. The educational system will include Pre-School, Elementary (Basic General), High School and University education and Professional and Permanent Adult education.

2. The educational system will also include methods, subject matter and types required by the special characteristics of the students.

3. Libraries, Museums, Archives and other scientific and cultural institutions will cooperate in fulfilling the goals of the educational system by granting free access to their documents, bibliographies, and cultural resources.

SECTION II

Educational levels

PART I

Pre-School Education

Article 13

1. The main object of pre-school education is the harmonic development of the child's personality.

2. Pre-school education is not compulsory; it is voluntary. It is for children under 5 years old and is divided into two stages:

a) Nursery School, for two and three year olds, while systematically organized, will be similar to play at home.

b) Kindergarden, for four five year olds, will develop the child's skills.

3. Government pre-schools will be free-of-charge; non-Government pre-schools may also be free-of-charge if they request aid.

Article 14

1. Pre-school education will consist of games, language games, native language where applicable (regional dialects, Catalan, Basque, etc.), rhythmic expression, show and tell, nature study, pre-numerical and logic games, learning to get along with other people, and religious principles and moral attitudes.

2. Action methods will predominate in order to develop the spontaneity, creativity and sense of responsibility of the child.

PART II

Elementary Education

Article 15

1. The goal of Elementary Education is to give all students the same basic education and develop them integrally, adapting the education, insofar as possible, to the aptitudes and capabilities of each one.

2. Elementary Education consists in eight (8) years of schooling, generally completed between six and thirteen years of age, divided into two stages:

a) The first stage, for children from six to ten years old, emphasized general education with an interdisciplinary approach.

b) The second stage, for children from eleven to thirteen years of age, includes slightly differentiated subject matter and attention is paid to orienting the student so that he might make a choice among work and study options.

Article 16

The goal of Elementary Education is to develope and use the student's study habits, imagination, capacity for observation, induction and deduction, religious-

moral habits and ideas, ability to get along with others and his sense of belonging to a local, national, and international community, artistic expression and appreciation, and high social-civic consciousness and physical-sportsmanship capabilities.

Article 17

1. Elementary education will consist in teaching in the following subject matters: developing skills in the national language, studying a foreign language and, where appropriate, studying a native language; the fundamentals of religious culture; knowledge of social and cultural realities, with particular reference to Spain; basic ideas of mathematics, physics and mechanics; domestic activities, and any other subjects or skills which prepare the student for a High School education of Grade I Professional Training.

2. The Ministry of Science and Education will establish the programs and pedagogical orientations sufficiently flexible to be adapted to different geographic zones and given special emphasis according to the sex of the students. In drawing up the curricula, care will be taken so as to harmonize the subjects covered during each school year and to develope a coherency among all of the courses at the elementary level.

Article 18

1. Elementary school teaching methods will foster the originality and creativity of the students as well as his cooperative habits and attitudes, by teacher and student working together. Audiovisual aids and techniques will be used extensively.

2. The students will move out into the community around their schools to study the ecological potential of the zone. They will have access to whatever institutions, mines, businesses, and so forth which might contribute to their psychological-biological development.

Article 19

1. During Elementary Education the student's progress in relation to his own capabilities will be kept in mind above all.

2. At the end of the first stage, the student's progress will be graded on the basis of his over-all performance and growth throughout the first stage. During the second stage, students will be graded based on performance on flexible examinations written by a team of teachers from the Institution itself.

3. Students who do not need special education (such as for mentally retarded or physically handicapped) but do not receive satisfactory grades at the end of the school year will not have to repeat the school year but will have to do make-up work while studying the following year.

Article 20

1. At the end of Elementary School, students who have regularly shown satisfactory performance will receive the Elementary School Certificate. Those who have not shown consistently satisfactory results must take tests of their development according to norms established by the Ministry of Science and Education.

2. Students who do not receive the Elementary School Certificate upon completion of Elementary School will receive the General Education Fulfilled Voucher.

3. The General Education Fulfilled Voucher helps the student register in Grade I Professional Training Institutions. The Elementary School Certificate allows the student to go on to High School.

PART III

Secondary Education

Article 21

1. High School follows Elementary Education. Besides furthering the personal development of the student, he is prepared to go on to a higher education or Grade II Professional training and to become an active member of society.

2. Together this level will consist in a technical-professional activity leading to a single, comprehensive diploma, for both required and elective subject matter.

3. High School is made up of three parts, generally completed between 14 and 16 years of age.

Article 22

1. At the High School level special attention is paid to character formation; development of religious-moral, civic-social, and study, work, and self-disciplinary habits; and physical (sports) education. All this will be carried out in an environment which propitiates cooperation with others and the progressive preparation for social responsibilities and activities.

2. Education will be to develop a solid cultural base, developing this with progressively systematic and scientific criteria. More important than collecting and broadening factual knowledge is developing the ability to organize, synthesize and interrelate ideas.

3. Activities will be organized by which the student will come to appreciate the value and dignity of work and his vocational orientation will receive guidance.

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PART IV

University Education

Article 30

The goals of University Education are:

1. To complete the personal development of the youth, prepare the professionals the country needs, to improve and perfect the practice of the professions, all in accordance with article 1 of this Law.

2. To foster cultural progress, develop research and investigation at all levels for any goal, and to train scientists and educators.

3. To contribute to improving the national educational system as well as the social and economic development of the nation.

Article 31

1. University Education will be preceeded by a preuniversity (orientation) course.

2. Education will be handled by Schools and Technical Institutes and with few exceptions will be broken down into the following three cycles or programs:

a) The first cycle focuses on studying basic disciplines and lasts three years.

b) The second cycle is when the student choses and studies his field of specialization. It lasts two years.

c) In the third cycle the student choses his particular specialty and is prepared for research and teaching.

3. University Education will last three years and consist in a single cycle, with few exceptions.

Article 32

1. The specific goals of the pre-university course are:

a) Deepen the student's knowledge of Basic Sciences.

b) Helping those who show particular aptitudes or inclinations to chose careers or professions.

c) Equip the student with the intellectual processes and techniques needed for a higher education.

2. Pre-university education will be available to students holding a High School Diploma or who have excelled in a Grade II Professional Training program.

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